

When Job Dissatisfaction Leads to Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors

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ABSTRACT

This thesis places boundary conditions on the withdrawal model in the frontline setting of service organizations by considering continuance commitment and supervisory support as moderators of the relationship between job dissatisfaction and customer-oriented citizenship behaviors (COCBs). Departing from traditional research in the areas of the service-profit chain and employee withdrawal, the author advances our understanding of conditions that may lead frontline service employees who are dissatisfied to deposit COCBs into the organizational system. Specifically, based on principles derived from social exchange theory, high continuance commitment and high supervisory support are expected to lead to COCBs, because under this condition the benefits of performing such behaviors are increased (i.e., promotion-based, reciprocity-based), while the costs are decreased (i.e., opportunity costs). Utilizing a sample of 127 frontline employees from both the financial services and travel agency industries, the hypothesized relationships are empirically supported using moderated hierarchical regression analysis. To conclude discussion, implications of the results for both academics and practitioners are considered along with future research directions.

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1. INTRODUCTION

What manufacturing was to the industrial revolution in the early 20th century, services are to the global economy of this era (e.g., Vargo and Lusch 2004). In fact, approximately 75% of Canada's gross domestic product comes from the service sector (Statistics Canada 2009). This increase in competition has produced unique challenges for incumbent service organizations. In an effort to sustain and maintain competitive advantage, service organizations have sought to overcome these challenges by developing a customer-linking capability (Day 1994; Narver and Slater 1990; Kelley 1992). Not surprisingly, an important resource to service organizations when developing a customer-linking capability is a knowledgeable, skilled, and capable staff of frontline service employees (e.g., Hartline and Ferrell 1996; Pfeffer 1994; Rucci, Kim, and Quinn 1998).

Frontline service employees (hereafter frontline employees) are a critical resource that drives a customer-linking capability because they create and manage the organization's relationships with customers (Day 1994). Further, employee-customer relationships, in the service context, are a critical source of differentiation and are fundamental to competitive advantage (e.g., Homburg, Hoyer, and Fassnacht 2002). As such, through forming close relationships with customers, frontline employees initially affect customers' perceptions of service quality (e.g., Brady and Cronin 2001; Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman 1988) and later affect the market and financial performance of an organization (e.g., Ahearne, Jelinek, and Jones 2007; Grewal, Levy, and Kumar 2009). Thus, the employee-customer interface has strategic implications for organizations (Homburg, Wieseke, and Bornemann 2009).

Highlighting the importance of the employee-customer interface, frontline employees who behave in a customer-oriented manner have been empirically linked to impact four vital

components of organizational performance. These include: (1) customer satisfaction (e.g., Goff et al. 1997; Stock and Hoyer 2005); (2) customer loyalty (e.g., Homburg, Wieseke, and Hoyer 2009); (3) store-level revenue (e.g., Schneider et al. 2005); and, (4) store-level profitability (e.g., Grizzle et al. 2009). Evidently, a customer orientation not only benefits the customer through improved service delivery, but also benefits the organization in these four important ways through the development of a customer-linking capability.

It is well known within the academic and business communities that it is most often those behaviors of frontline employees that go above and beyond role prescriptions that differentiate service organizations from their competitors. Prior studies suggest that frontline employees should even go as far as to “delight” the customer during the service encounter in order to enhance customer satisfaction (e.g., Bitner, Booms, and Tetreault 1990; Rust and Oliver 2000). To that effect, previous research has also studied customer-oriented citizenship behaviors (hereafter COCBs), which I define as discretionary behaviors on the part of frontline employees that are crucial to developing a customer-linking capability (Bettencourt and Brown 2003).

Homburg, Wieseke, and Hoyer (2009) have recently demonstrated that job satisfaction leads to customer orientation, which in turn influences customer satisfaction. Customer satisfaction then drives customer loyalty, which subsequently improves the market and financial performance of the organization. In the management literature, the positive link between improved customer perceptions and organizational performance has largely been attributed to the importance of high-performance human resource management (hereafter HRM) practices (e.g., Sun, Aryee, and Law 2007). Marketing researchers in the field of internal marketing have also reached similar conclusions (e.g., Bell and Menguc 2002; Bell, Menguc, and Stefani 2004; Wieseke et al. 2009). Within this framework, the purpose of this thesis is to gain a more in-

depth understanding of the impact of frontline employees' job dissatisfaction on their COCBs and to identify possible boundary conditions of the proposed negative relationship between the two constructs.

2. PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Early studies in the field of COCBs were chaotic; many labels and definitions were given to the construct (cf. George 1991; George and Bettenhausen 1990; Pelled, Kizilos, and Cummings 2000). This unstructured approach to research hindered the conceptual development of COCBs at their outset. In the meantime, the studies using the theoretical framework of the service-profit chain have been one dimensional (Heskett et al. 1994). Despite all of these problems, previous studies have comprehensively investigated and supported the notion that treating employees well influences the provision of COCBs (Maxham, Netemeyer, and Lichtenstein 2008). However, much more research is necessary in order to advance the practicality of findings regarding COCBs within the framework of the service-profit chain. Throughout this thesis I argue that, since research in the area of COCBs is now maturing, it is time to increase the research scope.

Customer-oriented citizenship behaviors, along with related extra-role constructs (cf. Van Dyne, Cummings, and Parks 1995), have been investigated within the context of the service-profit chain (Heskett et al. 1994; Heskett, Sasser, and Schlesinger 1997, 2003). In line with Bettencourt and his colleagues (1997, 2001, 2003), I consider COCBs as those discretionary behaviors of frontline employees that contribute to a customer-linking capability and identify them in terms of extra-role customer service, internal influence, and service delivery. *Extra-role customer service* is a set of behaviors that goes above and beyond the call of duty during service encounters (e.g., Bettencourt and Brown 1997). *Internal influence* is the voluntary offering of constructive ideas in order to help improve the service an organization provides to its customers (e.g., Bettencourt, Gwinner, and Meuter 2001). *Service delivery* is conscientious, adaptive,

responsive, empathetic, and respective behavior toward customers during the service encounter (e.g., Bettencourt, Brown, and MacKenzie 2005).

Perhaps the link in the service-profit chain that has been covered most often in the literature and that has the most ramifications to an organization is the link between *job satisfaction* and *COCBs* (e.g., Bettencourt and Brown 1997, 2003; Bettencourt et al. 2005; Payne and Webber 2006; Stock and Hoyer 2005). The body of research covering this link has been very comprehensive and progressive. Furthermore, it has made a considerable contribution to our understanding of the implications of a satisfied workforce. However, this literature paints a utopian picture and it is assumed by this framework that frontline employees are always satisfied, which simply is not the case. Despite the wealth of knowledge that has been advanced by studies utilizing the service-profit chain, one area still remains unquestioned. The adverse situation (i.e., a dissatisfied workforce) is not well understood in that remedies of such are not known.

The service-profit chain holds that dissatisfied frontline employees will withdraw their COCBs, essentially eliminating an element of the service encounter that drastically contributes to competitive advantage (e.g., Grizzle et al. 2009; Maxham et al. 2008; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997; Schneider et al. 2005). As noted previously, employee-customer relationships, in the service context, are a critical source of differentiation (e.g., Homburg, Wieseke, and Bornemann 2009). It is then both interesting and important to identify ways in which organizations can facilitate an environment that prevents this withdrawal process from occurring. However, no research to date has been conducted on this matter, which is an intriguing gap in the literature. The purpose of this thesis is to investigate the relationship between job (dis)satisfaction and

COCBs. More explicitly, I identify two gaps that I investigate as research questions of this thesis.

The first research question relates to the gap regarding the contextual role of frontline employees' commitment to their organization. Two forms of employee commitment, namely affective and continuance, appear to be most relevant to the context of this thesis (e.g., Allen and Meyer 1990, 1996; Mathieu and Zajac 1990). However, the results of previous studies somewhat indicate that affective commitment indeed plays a contingency role on the relationship between job (dis)satisfaction and COCBs (e.g., Bettencourt et al. 2005; Meyer et al. 1989; Payne and Webber 2006). Rather, what is less understood is the contingency role of continuance commitment on this particular relationship. Though not limited to, continuance commitment refers to the extent to which frontline employees are committed to their organization because of a lack of alternatives (e.g., Meyer et al. 1989; Gruen, Summers, and Acito 2000). Therefore, I ask the question of whether employees who are dissatisfied yet committed to their organization out of necessity may perform COCBs under certain conditions.

The second research question this thesis addresses is whether it is worthwhile for supervisors to provide helping and supportive efforts to dissatisfied employees. Given that supervisors have limited time and social resources, it is important that their efforts be allocated appropriately (Graen and Uhl-Bien 1995). Therefore, I ask the question of whether employees who are dissatisfied yet supported socially by their supervisors may perform COCBs.

This thesis is designed to answer these two research questions. In the development of the conceptual model and its hypotheses, I draw predominantly on social exchange theory (Blau 1964) with the help of two frameworks: the service-profit chain and withdrawal model.

In summary, I develop and test the following hypotheses by using data collected from service organizations in the financial services, travel, and clothing retail industries: (1) job dissatisfaction leads to reduced COCBs; (2) continuance commitment positively moderates the focal relationship such that it makes it weaker; (3) supervisory support positively moderates the focal relationship and makes it weaker; and (4) high continuance commitment coupled with high supervisory support leads to the most positive relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs.

The remainder of this thesis is organized as follows. First, I outline the theoretical and managerial implications that will be made possible by the findings of this thesis. Second, I thoroughly review the literature to understand the origin of COCB research. Next, I develop the model and hypotheses, which is followed by an explanation of the data collection procedure and measures used to capture the constructs of the conceptual model. Finally, results of the moderated hierarchical regression analysis are discussed, followed by limitations and proposed future research directions.

3. CONTRIBUTION

This thesis makes the following theoretical and managerial contributions to the literature. First, this study supports the framework of the service-profit chain by means of understanding the implications and remedies of a dissatisfied workforce. The topic of a dissatisfied front line is relevant to the actual service setting of retail locations and guides my current study. It is well documented that frontline employees in retail settings are over worked and under paid (e.g., Weatherly and Tansik 1993). Work stress, in terms of role ambiguity and role conflict, has been studied meticulously in the frontline setting (e.g., Behrman and Perreault 1984; Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bhuian, Menguc, and Borsboom 2005; Singh 2002). Inevitably, these unfavorable conditions lead to dissatisfied personnel interacting with the organization's customers.

I contend that understanding contingencies that can influence employees who are dissatisfied to deposit COCBs into the organizational system is vital for service organizations to develop a customer-linking capability. Notably, the conceptual model of this thesis investigates the contingency role of two types of factors: (1) continuance commitment, of which the organization has no control over, and (2) supervisory support, of which the organization can control. In turn, this research will bring new light to the service-profit chain literature, since its intricacies within the distal constructs of human resource management and organizational performance have been investigated thoroughly.

Second, the depth and breadth of the proposed data collection improves upon the existing literature (e.g., Bettencourt and Brown 1997, 2003; Bettencourt et al. 2005; Bettencourt, Gwinner, and Meuter 2001; Schneider et al. 2005; Maxham and Netemeyer 2003; Payne and Webber 2006; Sun et al. 2007). My research allows results to be generalized across the service sector, opposed to being bound to one particular industry. The data collected includes the

financial services and travel agency industries in the dataset. These industries have been selected because in both cases the frontline is characterized by high-contact service encounters between frontline employees and customers. As such, results will be applicable to both of these service settings, which are important to the North American economy.

4. LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

An employee's role provision is made up of two facets: role-prescribed behaviors and discretionary behaviors. In-role behaviors (IRBs) constitute the first facet, expected role performance; whereas extra-role behaviors (ERBs) comprise the second, which is voluntary in nature. ERBs must be distinguished from IRBs in order to maintain definitional clarity between the two. Furthermore, empirical evidence demonstrates that ERBs and IRBs have different antecedents and consequences (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Ahearne 1998), which magnifies the importance of delineating the two.

IRBs can be gauged using performance measures such as individual sales volume and, therefore, are objective. On the contrary, ERBs are more subjective in that they are generally not measurable. Many ERBs are mundane and go unnoticed due to their frequent occurrence. Yet, in the aggregate, ERBs contribute to an organization's functioning and help it to achieve its goals (e.g., Organ 1988). Hence, IRBs (e.g., sales volume) and ERBs (e.g., helping behavior) have markedly different characteristics and are both important for organizational survival.

Specifically, this literature review intends to introduce the concept of COCBs and to examine their antecedents and consequences established in the literature. To do this, I will first establish the origin of the research in the field of COCBs. This requires an examination of ERBs, a construct that encompasses COCBs and several other related concepts. Next, I will examine organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., Organ 1988; Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie 2006; Podsakoff et al. 2000), a dimension of ERBs that has had a profound impact on the conceptual development of COCBs. I will then define COCBs, as well as identify their antecedents and consequences.

4.1. Extra-Role Behaviors

Van Dyne and colleagues (1995), in their construction of a nomological network for ERBs, define them using four implications. They imply that in order for behaviors to be extra-role, they must be: voluntary, intentional, positive, and altruistic. Such behaviors go beyond the call of duty, are performed with conscious intent, benefit the organization, and give help to others.

For the purpose of this thesis, I add one additional implication in order to remain in line with COCBs, the focal construct. As such, in addition to the four implications previously mentioned this thesis defines ERBs as behaviors that are affiliative (i.e., behaviors that are performed with the intent to improve organizational processes or functionality, such as helping, protecting, and promoting; Van Dyne et al. 1995). Types of affiliative ERBs include spontaneous behaviors (George and Brief 1992; George and Jones 1997), prosocial organizational behaviors (Brief and Motowidlo 1986; George and Bettenhausen 1990), and organizational citizenship behaviors (Organ 1988; Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie 2006; Podsakoff et al. 2000).

Other dimensions of ERBs are assertive in nature and, by definition, challenge organizational processes. Assertive ERBs will be left out of discussion due to their dissimilarity from COCBs. These behaviors include whistle blowing (Miceli and Near 1985) and principled organizational dissent (Graham 1986).

Even though all dimensions of ERBs share the four implications identified by Van Dyne and colleagues (1995; at least in part), differences do exist among them that maintain discriminant validity. Differences among spontaneous behaviors, prosocial organizational behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors, and COCBs can be identified using the

following five characteristics: (1) whether all types of the behavior are organizationally functional or if dysfunctional behaviors are included; (2) whether the behavior is exclusively extra-role or if some types of the behavior are in-role; (3) whether the primary beneficiary is the organization, target, or customer; (4) whether the actor can be any employee or if it is restricted to a specific employee group; and, (5) whether financial remuneration is allowable or not allowable (e.g., Van Dyne et al. 1995).

Table 1 illustrates how COCBs differ from related dimensions of ERBs along these five characteristics. Discussion within the sections that address organizational citizenship behaviors and COCBs will refer to Table 1 when introducing the constructs.

TABLE 1
Distinguishing Traits among Affiliative Extra-Role Behaviors

Characteristic	Spontaneous Behaviors	Prosocial Organizational Behaviors	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors
Functional	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Dysfunctional	No	Yes	No	No
Extra-role	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
In-role	No	Yes	No	No
Primary Beneficiary	Organization	Target	Organization	Customer
Actor	Employee	Employee	Employee	Frontline Employee
Financial Remuneration	Yes	Yes	No	No

Most recent research on the topic of COCBs has considered them as an extension of organizational citizenship behaviors. Four types of organizational citizenship behaviors (helping behavior, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, and individual initiative), in

particular, have been extended to fit the realm of frontline employees' COCBs. For the purposes of this thesis, organizational citizenship behaviors are of considerable importance, as a good understanding of them is imperative to introduce the construct of COCBs. Thus, the construct of organizational citizenship behaviors will now be thoroughly discussed.

4.2. Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

4.2.1. Overview

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) have been the most widely studied dimension of ERBs in the marketing literature (e.g., Bell and Menguc 2002; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1993; MacKenzie et al. 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Paine 1999; Netemeyer et al. 1997; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994). Organ (1988) defined OCBs as discretionary behaviors on the part of an employee that are not formally rewarded, yet in the aggregate promote organizational functioning. Seven types of OCBs have been established in the literature, which is considerable growth from the initial two types (helping and compliance) originally researched by Smith, Organ, and Near (1983).

By definition, and as illustrated in Table 1, OCBs are restricted to acts on the part of employees that are both functional for the organization and extra-role. The organization is the ultimate beneficiary of citizenship behaviors, but more immediately co-workers can also benefit depending on the form of OCBs (e.g., helping behavior) in question. An interpretation of the seven types of OCBs: (1) helping behavior, (2) sportsmanship, (3) organizational loyalty, (4) organizational compliance, (5) individual initiative, (6) civic virtue, and (7) self development, will now follow.

4.2.2. Types of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Helping behaviors. A composite of four related types of OCBs (altruism, cheerleading, peacemaking, and courtesy), helping behaviors consist of behaviors that either solve or prevent work-related problems with co-workers (Organ 1988). Altruism, cheerleading, and peacemaking, the first three components of helping behaviors, fall within the first category of helping behaviors- solving work-related problems; whereas the final component, courtesy, prevents work-related problems (e.g., MacKenzie et al. 1998; Organ et al. 2006). *Altruism* includes selfless acts of helping such that the actor performs the behaviors without the expectation of receiving financial benefit. In the service context, an example of altruistic behaviors would be voluntarily orienting new sales associates (e.g., Smith et al. 1983; Organ and Ryan 1995). The second component of helping behaviors, *cheerleading*, consists of encouraging and supporting efforts that are directed toward co-workers who are discouraged about falling short of goals or professional development targets (e.g., Organ 1988). *Peacemaking*, the third component of helping behaviors, occurs when destructive conflict arises between two or more co-workers. The peacemaker steps into the middle to resolve the issue(s) that is (are) causing the conflict (e.g., Organ et al. 2006). Finally, *courtesy* is a component of helping behaviors that falls in the second category- preventing work-related problems. If a salesperson was to consult with members of the production department before accepting a large order he or she would be preventing the possibility of downstream problems from occurring. Such acts of courtesy prevent work-related problems and make for a more functional work group (e.g., Konovsky and Organ 1996; MacKenzie et al. 1998).

Sportsmanship. A good sport is not only someone who does not complain when things do not go his or her way, but also someone who maintains a positive attitude through it all

(Podsakoff et al. 2000). A person's idea may be rejected by a group, or his or her work assignment may not be completely fair when compared to co-worker's. Employees who do not complain or file grievances in these circumstances are sacrificing their personal interest for the good of the organization and, in turn, are considered good citizens (e.g., Konovsky and Organ 1996; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1991, 1993).

Organizational loyalty. To be loyal to one's organization is to protect it from potential danger and to promote it to outsiders. Graham (1991) used classical philosophy and modern political theory as a guide to define three categories of citizenship behaviors, loyalty being one of them. After adapting citizenship behaviors in a geopolitical arena to fit an organizational setting Graham (1991) defined organizational loyalty as, "...defending the organization against threats; contributing to its good reputation; and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole" (p. 255).

Organizational compliance. Originally introduced by Smith and colleagues (1983) when study on OCBs originated, organizational compliance was most recently defined by Organ and colleagues (2006) as, "the more general adherence to the spirit as well as the letter of the rules or norms that define a cooperative system" (p. 19). The expectation of organizations is that all employees strictly adhere to organizational rules and policies at all times, but unfortunately that is not the reality. Many employees do not internalize organizational rules verbatim nor do they obey all rules conscientiously, especially when supervision is absent. That said, even though compliance is seemingly a higher order construct of IRBs, the reality of many employees' lackluster behaviors makes compliant employees good citizens of the organization (e.g., Podsakoff et al. 2000; Smith et al. 1983).

Individual initiative. Similar to organizational compliance, individual initiative also differs from IRBs more so in degree than in kind. Individual initiative, “involves engaging in task-related behaviors at a level that is so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavor” (Podsakoff et al. 2000; p. 524). As such, employees who perform duties that are innovative and not present in job descriptions are considered good citizens of the organization.

Civic Virtue involves being an active participant in the political life of an organization even so much as to attend nonnrequired meetings (Graham 1991); to protect the organization from threats (George and Brief 1992); and, overall, to be attentive to issues greater than one’s job (Organ 1988). Konovsky and Organ (1996) distinguish civic virtue by measuring the extent to which employees remain informed about development in the company, attend extra meetings, and offer suggestions to improve operations.

Self development is discretionary effort on the part of employees to develop knowledge and abilities in order to do one’s job better, to learn new skills in order to prepare for more responsible positions, and to keep up with developments within one’s field (George and Jones 1997). Many organizations provide employees with opportunities to develop themselves for more responsible positions. Employees who capitalize on those opportunities and willingly enroll in courses to improve their knowledge and skills are indispensable to the organization. More knowledgeable employees can assume higher management positions and contribute to the organization on a greater level. Furthermore, organizations that have the luxury of a knowledgeable employee pool to select from can fill management positions internally when they become vacant (e.g., George and Brief 1992; Katz 1964; Katz and Kahn 1978; Organ 1988).

4.2.3. Summary

Organizational citizenship behaviors have received a considerable amount of attention in the literature. Throughout the development of OCBs several scholars have indicated that an extra-role construct that is an extension of OCBs, COCBs, deserves further study (MacKenzie et al. 1998; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997). In response, four types of OCBs have been tailored to fit the role of frontline employees. First, part of *organizational loyalty* (contributing to its good reputation), was adapted by Bettencourt and colleagues (2001, 2003) to become a type of COCBs (external representation; referred to as loyalty by Bettencourt et al. 2001). This less widely studied type of citizenship behaviors is more suitable when put in the context of frontline employees and, subsequently, has received research interest in the context of COCBs (e.g., Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt et al. 2001). Second, types of COCBs have also evolved from *individual initiative*. These include: Bettencourt and Brown's extra-role customer service (Bettencourt and Brown 1997); Bettencourt and colleague's participation (Bettencourt et al. 2001); and Bettencourt and Brown's internal influence (Bettencourt and Brown 2003). Third, Bettencourt and Brown's cooperation (Bettencourt and Brown 1997) follows altruism, a component of *helping behaviors*. Fourth, Bettencourt and his colleagues (2001, 2003) developed a scale termed service delivery that is similar to *organizational compliance* (Bettencourt et al. 2001; Bettencourt et al. 2001). Accordingly, research on the concept of OCBs has had a considerable impact on COCB research.

I will now explain the focal construct of COCBs and examine its antecedents and consequences established in the literature.

4.3. Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors

4.3.1. Overview

Customer-oriented citizenship behaviors have evolved from several related extra-role constructs (spontaneous behaviors, prosocial organizational behaviors, and organizational citizenship behaviors), which has led to them receiving several different labels and being defined in many different ways. Studies that run most parallel to the conceptualization of COCBs used in this thesis label them in the following ways: customer-oriented prosocial behaviors (George and Bettenhausen 1990; Pelled, Kizilos, and Cummings 2000); prosocial service behaviors (Bettencourt and Brown 1997; George 1991); service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors (Bettencourt et al. 2001; Payne and Webber 2006; Sun, Aryee, and Law 2007); customer-focused organizational citizenship behaviors (Schneider et al. 2005); and, customer-oriented boundary-spanning behaviors (Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt, Brown, and MacKenzie 2005).

Earlier study was sporadic and even though all researchers defined COCBs in similar ways related to behaviors that are focused on the customer, no similarity existed among the types of COCBs used to explain a frontline employee's COCBs. For instance, George and Bettenhausen (1990) defined customer-oriented prosocial behaviors in terms of customer service, or helpful behaviors toward customers. Later, Pelled and colleagues (2000) defined the same construct in a different way, using more specific, behavioral terms and assessing their version of COCBs with measures of adapting to customer needs, generating and implementing ideas that exceed customer expectations, and resolving customer problems. Hence, the definition of COCBs originally varied from study to study.

Nonetheless, a group of articles (Bettencourt and Brown 1997, 2003; Bettencourt et al. 2005; Bettencourt et al. 2001; Schneider et al. 2005; Maxham and Netemeyer 2003; Payne and Webber 2006; Sun et al. 2007) has conformed to use five types of COCBs (cooperation, internal influence, external representation, extra-role customer service, and service delivery) that do a very good job of summarizing COCBs. I define COCBs in line with these studies as those discretionary behaviors of frontline employees that contribute to a customer-linking capability (Bettencourt and Brown 1997, 2003; Bettencourt et al. 2001). Next, in the following paragraphs I will develop the construct of COCBs by explaining its five types in detail.

4.3.2. Types of Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors

Cooperation on the part of a frontline employee refers to helpful behaviors directed at co-workers in one's immediate work group (Bettencourt and Brown 1997). This type of behavior is extra-role in that it is neither compulsory nor formally rewarded (Organ 1988). The services literature recognizes the impact of employees' onstage actions (e.g., cooperation) on customers' service quality perceptions (e.g., Bitner, Ostrom, and Morgan 2008; Zeithaml et al. 1988). As such, frontline employee cooperation is customer oriented in that it is a visible internal service that spills over to affect external service evaluations by customers.

Internal influence, like cooperation, is internal behavior that is ultimately intended to benefit the customer. Frontline employees are in a unique position within the organization. They interact with the organization's customers more so than any other employee group and for that reason the information they hold is extremely valuable (Aldrich and Herker 1977; Bell, Menguc, and Widing, in press). Frontline employees who participate in internal communications to share knowledge about customers and who volunteer constructive ideas to help improve the

service an organization provides to its customers exhibit internal influence (Bettencourt and Brown 2003; referred to as *participation* by Bettencourt et al. 2001).

External representation is the spreading of favorable goodwill about the organization to outsiders on the part of frontline employees (Bettencourt and Brown 2003). Representing the organization favorably to outsiders promotes the organization and can be performed most frequently and effectively by frontline employees due to their constant customer contact (Aldrich and Herker 1977). An example of an employee acting as an ambassador of the organization would be if he or she, by his or her own free will, mentioned how enjoyable it is to work for an organization to friends, family, or customers while at work or at home.

Extra-role customer service represents going the extra mile during the provision of service to customers (Bettencourt and Brown 1997). Work groups of frontline employees that go above and beyond what is expected during service provision have been empirically proven to directly impact customer satisfaction (e.g., Maxham and Netemeyer 2003) and indirectly impact sales performance (e.g., Maxham et al. 2008; Schneider et al. 2005).

Service delivery is the final type of COCBs to be mentioned and the first type that differs from IRBs more so in degree than in kind. Customer service guidelines can be found in many service organization's formal documents that determine employee behavior (e.g., a job description and training material). Hence, service delivery is often considered IRB accordingly. However, frontline employees who interact with customers with displays of conscientiousness, responsiveness, adaptability, courtesy, empathy, and respect provide superior service to customers (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1988). Bettencourt and Brown (2003) identify this concern for customer well being as service delivery. It is extra-role in the sense that it is service delivery far and above what is generally expected.

4.3.3. Antecedents to Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors

Table 2 is a representation of the studies that have investigated the antecedents to COCBs. Within this table there are indications of the authors of the study, the sample used, the antecedents considered, the measure of COCBs used, and the direction of the relationship between (among) the antecedent(s) and the measure of COCBs used in the study. As reported in this table, nine studies are known to have investigated factors that contribute to a frontline employee's COCBs.

Studies included in Table 2 used scale items developed by Bettencourt and his colleagues (1997, 2001, 2003). This limitation was imposed for two important reasons. First, to ensure that consistency in what is measured across studies is assured and, second, to ensure that the types of COCBs investigated in the studies are consistent with the types previously explained. The research settings for the studies in Table 2 include retail banking, call centers, hair salons, supermarkets, hotels, retail stores, libraries, and online retailers. Employees studied in these settings have typically been frontline employees who interact with customers regularly. Measures of COCBs have either been self-reported or reported by a customer or supervisor of the employee.

Research on antecedents to COCBs can, in large part, be separated into studies that examine the contributory role of employee attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction; Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt et al. 2001; Payne and Webber 2006), organizational justice (i.e., workplace fairness; Maxham and Netemeyer 2003; Maxham et al. 2008), or both (Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Bettencourt et al. 2005). Other contributory factors found to affect a frontline employee's COCBs include service leadership behaviors and service climate (Schneider et al. 2005); high-performance human resource practices (Sun et al. 2007); organizational commitment (Payne and

TABLE 2
A Summary of Studies That Investigated Antecedents to COCBs

Authors	Sample	Findings		
		Antecedents	COCBs Scale Used	Relationship (+ / -)
Bettencourt and Brown (1997)	232 teller-customer service manager dyads; retail banking	Workplace fairness mediated by job satisfaction	In-role customer service, extra-role customer service, and cooperation	+
Bettencourt and Brown (2003)	220 lower-level service; 90 higher-level service; retail banking industry	Role stressors mediated by job satisfaction	Service delivery, internal influence, and external representation	-
Bettencourt, Brown, and MacKenzie (2005)	281 frontline employees of a retail bank	Organizational justice mediated by job satisfaction and organization-al commitment	Service delivery, internal influence, and external representation	+
Bettencourt, Gwinner, and Meuter (2001)	236 call center employees; 144 library staff members	Attitude, customer knowledge, and personality	Loyalty, participation, and service delivery	+
Maxham and Netemeyer (2003)	320 customer-customer service agent dyads; online electronics retailer	Organizational justice	Extra-role customer service	+
Maxham, Netemeyer, and Lichtenstein (2008)	1,615 retail employees, 57,656 customers, and 306 store managers	Organizational justice, employee conscientiousness, and organizational identification	Extra-role customer service	+
Payne and Webber (2006)	249 customer-hairstylist dyads	Job satisfaction and organizational commitment	Loyalty and service delivery	+
Schneider, Ehrhart, Mayer, Saltz, and Niles-Jolly (2005)	56 departments of a supermarket chain	Service leadership behavior and service climate	Extra-role customer service	+
Sun, Aryee, and Law (2007)	81 human resource managers and 405 supervisors; Chinese hotel industry	High-performance human resource practices	Loyalty, participation, and service delivery	+

Webber 2006); customer knowledge and personality (i.e., service orientation and empathy; Bettencourt et al. 2001); employee conscientiousness and organizational identification (Maxham et al. 2008); and, role stressors (i.e., role ambiguity and role conflict; Bettencourt and Brown 2003).

4.3.4. Consequences of Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors

Table 3 consists of a subset of the studies presented in Table 2 that, in addition to determining antecedents to COCBs, also determined consequences of such. Accordingly, studies found in Table 3 employ the same research settings and research participants as Table 2. Table 3 demonstrates that much less attention has been given to the consequences of COCBs when compared to study on its antecedents.

Four of the five studies considering consequences of COCBs investigated their impact on customer satisfaction (Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Maxham and Netemeyer 2003; Maxham et al. 2008; Schneider et al. 2005). This follows previous service literature that indicates the positive impact a frontline employee's behaviors have on service quality perceptions (e.g., Parasuraman et al. 1988). Other factors that COCBs have been empirically proven to effect include purchase intent, satisfaction with recovery, loyalty, and favorable word of mouth (Maxham and Netemeyer 2003; Maxham et al. 2008); and, turnover and productivity (Sun et al. 2007).

The duration of this thesis will, first, develop a theoretical framework that supports the proposed negative relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs. Next, the conceptual model and hypotheses will be developed, followed by a research method section, analyses and findings section, and discussion section.

TABLE 3
A Summary of Studies That Investigated Consequences of COCBs

Authors	Sample	Findings		
		COCBs Scale Used	Consequences	Relationship (+ / -)
Bettencourt and Brown (1997)	232 teller-customer service manager dyads; retail banking	In-role customer service, extra-role customer service, and cooperation	Customer satisfaction	+
Maxham and Netemeyer (2003)	320 customer-customer service agent dyads; online electronics retailer	Extra-role customer service	Customer justice, customer satisfaction, satisfaction with recovery, purchase intent, word of mouth	+
Maxham, Netemeyer, and Lichtenstein (2008)	1,615 retail employees, 57,656 customers, and 306 store managers	Extra-role customer service	Customer satisfaction, purchase intent, loyalty, word of mouth	+
Schneider, Ehrhart, Mayer, Saltz, and Niles-Jolly (2005)	56 departments of a supermarket chain	Unit extra-role customer service	Unit customer satisfaction	+
Sun, Aryee, and Law (2007)	81 human resource managers and 405 supervisors; Chinese hotel industry	Loyalty, participation, and service delivery	Turnover and productivity	- +

5. MODEL DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESES

5.1 Service-Profit Chain

Since its inception into the literature fifteen years ago, the service-profit chain (Heskett et al. 1994) has increased our understanding of how high-performance HRM leads to profit. The linkages within the model are such that internal service quality leads to satisfied employees, who then provide customer-oriented service. Subsequently, customers are satisfied with the quality of service, which leads to customer loyalty and, eventually, increased revenue and profit (e.g., Heskett et al. 1997, 2003). Within the sales and service management fields, marketing researchers have intricately studied these linkages (e.g., Homburg et al. 2009; Kamakura et al. 2002; Loveman 1998; Maxham et al. 2008; Payne and Webber 2006; Rucci et al. 1998; Soteriou and Zenios 1999; Zeithaml 2000).

Although most research has been conducted in the consumer services context, in industries such as retail banking (e.g., Loveman 1998; Kamakura et al. 2002; Soteriou and Zenios 1999), esthetics (e.g., Payne and Webber 2006), clothing retail (e.g., Maxham et al. 2008; Rucci et al. 1998) and travel (e.g., Homburg et al. 2009), recent study has extended the context of the service-profit chain to business markets (e.g., Bowman and Narayandas 2004). Within these two contexts, various types of service performance have been investigated at the heart of the service-profit chain as determinants of customer perceptions, including extra-role service recovery (Maxham and Netemeyer 2003), customer management effort (Bowman and Narayandas 2004), operational inputs (i.e., quality of equipment; Soteriou and Zenios 1999), in-role and extra-role performance (Maxham et al. 2008), and customer orientation (Homburg et al. 2009).

For the purpose of this thesis, the most relevant application of the service-profit chain was employed in the clothing retail setting (Maxham et al. 2008). This study confirmed that extra-role customer service, a type of COCBs, indeed leads directly to customer satisfaction and indirectly to store performance. Ultimately, these results contribute to the service-profit chain literature by demonstrating specifically what types of frontline employee behavior affect customer satisfaction (i.e., extra-role customer service, a type of COCBs); a contribution that separates this study from previous studies (e.g., Kamakura et al. 2002; Loveman 1998; Rucci et al. 1998; Soteriou and Zenios 1999) and that advances the development of the service profit chain. However, the managerial implications that can be drawn from this study are rather intuitive in that it seems obvious that organizations should treat employees well to influence COCBs and that these extra efforts will influence customer satisfaction.

The majority of the work that has examined the service-profit chain has confirmed the positive relationships among its linkages. However, few studies do exist that fail to report these findings (e.g., Szymanski and Henard 2001). For instance, Szymanski and Henard, in their meta-analysis of customer satisfaction research, emphasize that articles on customer satisfaction report mixed findings. Thus, there must be contingency factors that affect the relationships within the service-profit chain. I look at the adverse situation of a workforce that is dissatisfied and investigate whether under certain conditions dissatisfied employees may perform COCBs.

From this perspective, I support and advance the service-profit chain in a way that is different from previous research. Past studies have either adapted the model to fit another context (e.g., Bowman and Narayandas 2004), aimed to complement the conventional model with alternative drivers of firm performance (e.g., Homburg et al. 2009), or applied a more comprehensive test to the model by utilizing multi-source data (e.g., Maxham et al. 2008).

Building on these findings, I isolate the link from employee satisfaction to service performance (i.e., COCBs), but instead of confirming this relationship I intend to understand boundary conditions of it.

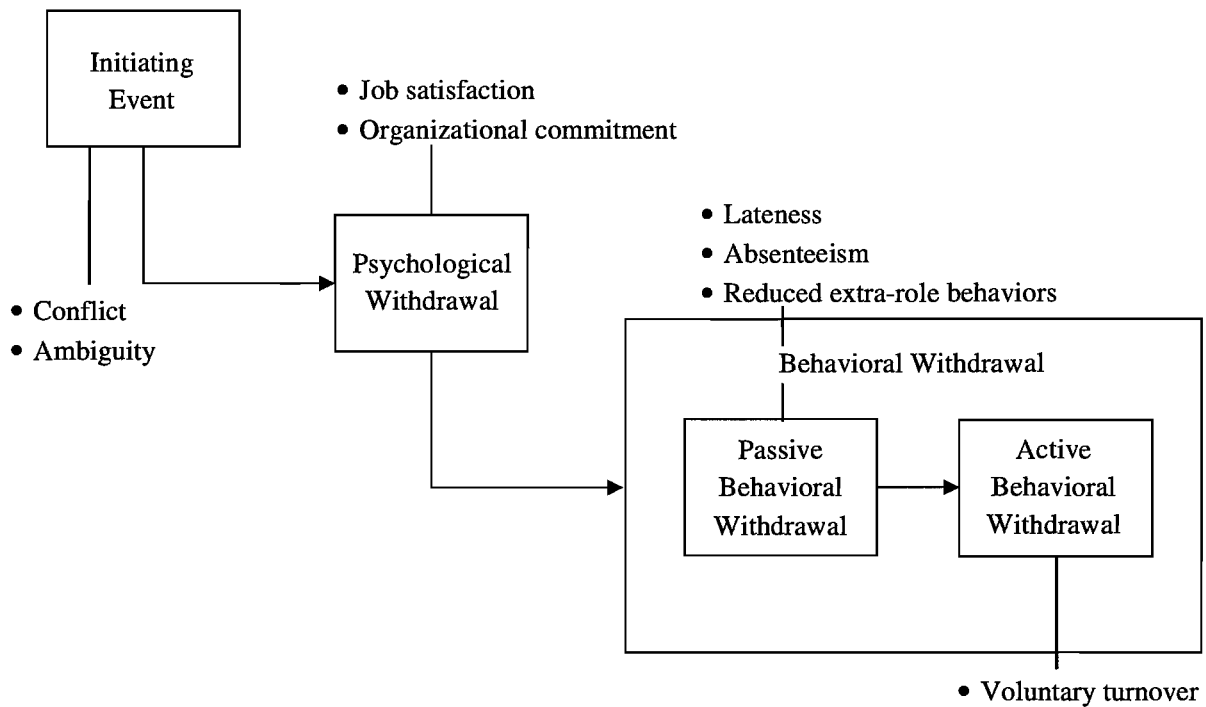
The main effect from employee satisfaction to service performance within the service-profit chain infers that dissatisfied employees will withdraw their COCBs. Against this backdrop, a withdrawal model can be used to explain this process. Thus, I incorporate both the service-profit chain and a withdrawal model to help develop the conceptual model for this thesis.

5.2. Withdrawal Model

A withdrawal model can be used to explain the negative relationship between employee job dissatisfaction and COCBs. The withdrawal process is composed of two links: first an initiating event (e.g., role stress or role ambiguity) leads to psychological withdrawal (e.g., job dissatisfaction; Jones et al. 1996), and, second, psychological withdrawal prompts behavioral withdrawal (e.g., Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Goolsby 1992). Goolsby (1992) attests that behavioral withdrawal rests on a continuum, ranging from passive forms of withdrawal, such as employees' reduction of in-role and extra-role behaviors (MacKenzie et al. 1998), to active forms of withdrawal, such as complete withdrawal from the organization in the form of voluntary employee turnover (Mowday, Porter, and Steers 1982). A formal representation of the withdrawal model can be found in Figure 1, which includes citations of work completed the area..

The withdrawal model, as previously described, has traditionally been used in the turnover literature to predict active withdrawal through the study of voluntary employee turnover (e.g., Beehr and Gupta 1978; Chen et al. 1998; George and Bettenhausen 1990; MacKenzie et al.

FIGURE 1
Withdrawal Model



1998) and turnover intentions (e.g., Tepper et al. 2001). First accounts of the withdrawal model used withdrawal of IRBs (i.e., lateness and absenteeism) as a predictor of voluntary turnover (Beehr and Gupta 1978). However, after future studies did not consistently find withdrawal of IRBs to be a valid predictor of voluntary turnover (e.g., Benson and Pond 1987; Lyons 1972; Porter and Steers 1973) researchers changed their focus from utilizing withdrawal of IRBs as a predictor of active forms of withdrawal to using withdrawal of ERBs (i.e., OCBs; Chen et al. 1998).

Chen and colleagues (1998) found that supervisor ratings of an employees' provision of OCBs are a valid predictor of voluntary turnover such that employees who do not display OCBs are more likely to exit the organization voluntarily. Thus, this study attests to the argument that

withdrawal of ERBs precedes voluntary employee turnover. They attribute this result to the fact that OCBs are discretionary and can be withdrawn without punishment in reaction to job dissatisfaction (Organ 1988). As such, employees can withdraw OCBs when they are dissatisfied with their jobs, whereas penalties would accompany lateness and absenteeism (i.e., in-role performance).

Bettencourt and Brown (2003), then, investigated the impact of employee job dissatisfaction on the withdrawal of COCBs. Utilizing the withdrawal model, they found that an initiating event (i.e., role stressors) led frontline employees to exhibit psychological withdrawal (i.e., job dissatisfaction), which in turn led to passive behavioral withdrawal (i.e., reduced provision of COCBs). This study both confirmed the negative relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs and intrigued me to understand how this withdrawal process can be subdued.

Specifically, my research is interested in the second link between psychological withdrawal and behavioral withdrawal. Like in the Bettencourt and Brown (2003) study, the type of behavioral withdrawal that is in question here is employees' withdrawal of COCBs. This relationship is proposed because COCBs span beyond role prescriptions and can be withdrawn without penalty (e.g., Organ 1988; Organ et al. 2006). Hence, it is expected that employees will not perform these behaviors when they are dissatisfied with their jobs.

In terms of the proposed conceptual model, I employ the service-profit chain and a withdrawal model; yet, models that are informed by both frameworks need to be theoretically embedded. Therefore, I draw on social exchange theory to hypothesize the relationships as posited by this thesis.

5.3. Social Exchange Theory

In its simplest form, social exchange theory (SET) refers to the cost-benefit analysis individuals utilize when faced with social behavioral decisions (e.g., Blau 1964, 1968; Homans 1961; Thibaut and Kelley 1959). Individuals enter into and maintain relationships that offer higher perceived benefits than perceived costs. Further, individuals seek to attain maximum value from relationships and, as a result, compare value gained from present relationships to all other available alternatives when deciphering relationship satisfaction (e.g., Thibaut and Kelley 1959).

Social exchange theory has been applied to the organizational setting in terms of employees' relationships with their organizations, supervisors, and coworkers (Dansereau, Graen, and Haga 1975; Eisenberger et al. 1975; Seers 1989). Of importance within the context of this study are frontline employees' relationships with both their organization and supervisors. In applications of the SET framework, employees' relationship with their organization has been studied under the lens of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al. 1975) and their relationship with supervisors under the lens of leader-member exchange (LMX) (Dansereau et al. 1975).

It is important to understand employees' relationships with their organizations and supervisors from a social exchange point of view to understand how employees can be motivated to perform voluntary behaviors that span beyond role expectations (e.g., Organ 1988, 1990). Employee-organization exchanges can take two forms: economic and social (Blau 1964, 1968). It is postulated by SET that only social exchanges, characterized by "voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are *expected* [italics added] to bring and do in fact bring from others" (Blau 1964, p. 91), are conducive of voluntary behaviors such as OCBs

(e.g., Menguc 2000; Netemeyer et al. 1997) and COCBs (e.g., Bettencourt et al. 2005). In contrast, economic exchanges, characterized by well-defined obligations, are not conducive of voluntary behaviors. Thus, it is important for organizations to develop social exchanges with their employees. Hence, of the many theories that could be applied to the organization-employee relationship, I embed my conceptual model within SET (in line with Bettencourt, Brown, and MacKenzie 2005), because SET is the explanation for COCBs (Organ 1990).

Economic exchanges are formed on a quid pro quo basis such that formal contracts specify what is to be exchanged in advance, whereas social exchanges are made up of unspecified future obligations such that favors are extended with only expectations of reciprocation and no means of redress should the recipient fail to return the favor (Blau 1964, 1968). In the organizational context frontline employees' COCBs are the currency of exchange and, if present, render unspecified future obligations (i.e., career advancement). To that effect, employees use COCBs as an avenue to create social exchange with an organization (e.g., Organ 1988).

Alternatively, a mechanism organizations can use to create social exchanges with employees is supervisory support. In addition, an environmental factor outside of the organization's control that may achieve the same end is continuance commitment. Thus, consistent with SET, I posit that continuance commitment and supervisory support will influence employees to define relations with their organization in a social exchange context and that social exchange precedes COCBs (Blau 1964, 1968; Bettencourt et al. 2005).

In terms of employee-organization relationships, commitment may be a reflection of SET. Continuance commitment in my study refers to the perceived costs associated with leaving an organization, either due to investment in the organization or to scarcity of other employment

alternatives (e.g., Allen and Meyer 1990, 1996). It can then be argued that continuance commitment fits with the general principles of SET (i.e., employees' opportunity costs are decreased when continuance commitment is high, essentially leading to social exchange).

Looking at continuance commitment from a SET point of view is new. Many authors consider affective commitment to be favorable and continuance commitment to be unfavorable (e.g., Meyer et al. 1989). However, given that organizations cannot control the economic environment, it is important for supervisors to know how to treat dissatisfied employees when the job market is sparse. If employees do not have any other alternatives for employment there may be opportunity for supervisors to effectively manage dissatisfied employees and, in turn, influence COCBs. My research aims to understand what role supervisors should assume when dealing with employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs, yet committed due to necessity.

Similarly, supervisory support is incorporated in my model because of its relation to SET. A specific branch of SET that has been developed to explain supervisor-subordinate relationships is LMX (Dansereau et al. 1975). Supervisors are a personalized representation of an otherwise unpersonalized organization (Konovsky and Pugh 1994). If supervisors offer favors to employees by means of support, employees are likely to reciprocate by means of COCBs (e.g., Gouldner 1960; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Hui 1993).

Leader-member exchange, a widely researched and accepted theory, has evolved tremendously since it was originally considered by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975). At first, LMX held that a supervisor's relationship with his or her subordinates differs based on the subordinate's individual abilities and attitudes (Dansereau, Graen, and Haga 1975). In this approach, supervisors develop social exchanges with top performers by providing supportive and

helpful efforts; and, conversely, develop contractual (alternatively, economic) exchanges with bottom performers by providing only what is necessary.

Over time, it has been suggested that supervisors should initiate LMX with all employees, thereby extending the opportunity to develop a social exchange to every subordinate rather than just top performers (Graen and Uhl-Bien 1991). Perhaps, this evolution is due in part to the recognition of the many benefits an organization can gain from adopting LMX (cf. Graen and Uhl-Bien 1995). A notable consequence of LMX for the purpose of this thesis is OCBs (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Hui 1993). Thus, social exchanges between supervisors and subordinates foster extra effort on the part of subordinates that spans beyond role expectations.

What has never been considered in the literature is the effectiveness of LMX with employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs. To fill this gap, I intend to be the first researcher to investigate the impact of supportive leader behavior on dissatisfied employees' provision of COCBs. If it is discovered that dissatisfied employees are receptive to supportive efforts, the leadership literature will be impacted considerably. It is important that we, as academics, know what to do so that we can advise supervisors what kind of support they should give to subordinates.

Against this backdrop, and in line with SET, an interpretation of a withdrawal model follows. Both continuance commitment and supervisory support are considered for the contributory role they play in developing social exchanges between employees and organizations that are conducive of COCBs. The four hypotheses this thesis looks to address will now be outlined.

5.4. Hypotheses

5.4.1. Main Effect from Job Dissatisfaction to Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors

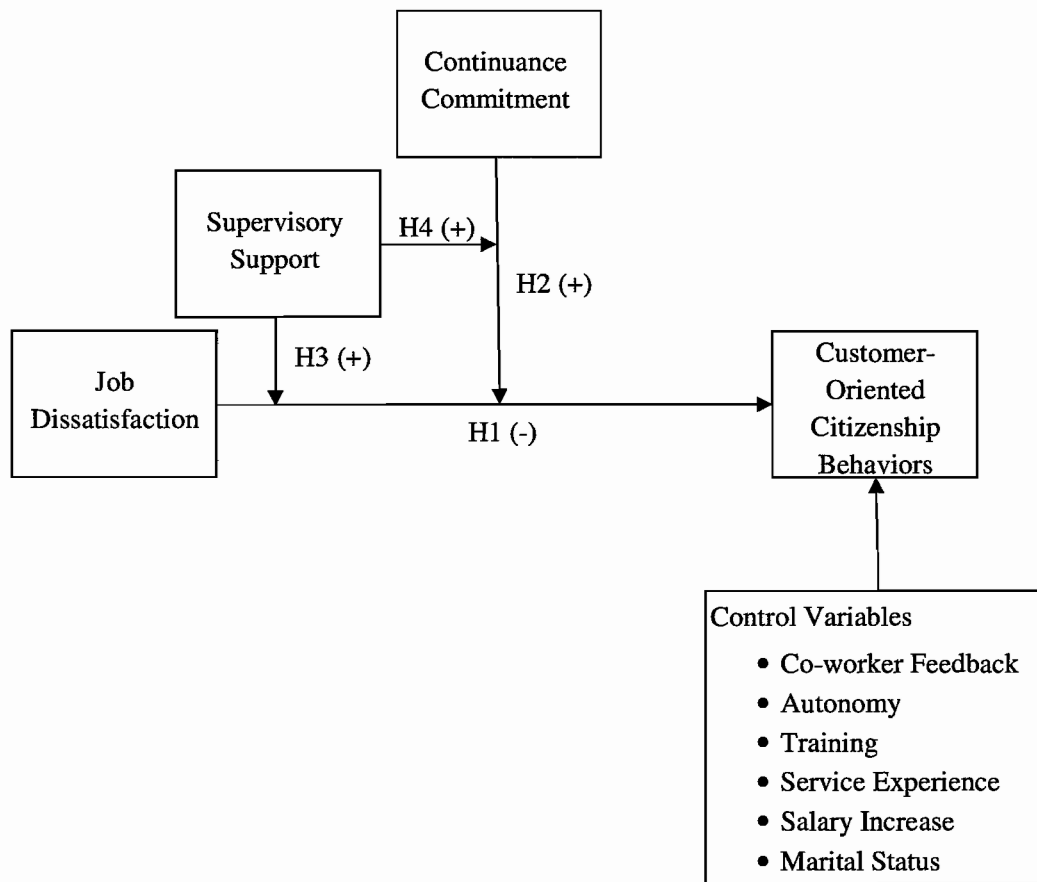
Empirical evidence supports the link between psychological withdrawal and forms of behavioral withdrawal related to COCBs, such as ERBs (MacKenzie et al. 1998) and OCBs (Chen et al. 1998). In addition, Bettencourt and Brown (2003) found support for a withdrawal model between job dissatisfaction (i.e., the degree to which an employee is overall dissatisfied with his or her job, would prefer another more ideal job, and is not satisfied with the important aspects of his or her job) and COCBs in two samples of frontline employees employed with a retail bank. Thus, I expect to replicate this withdrawal process in my research with COCBs and propose the following hypothesis:

H1. There is a negative relationship between job dissatisfaction and customer-oriented citizenship behaviors.

However, I hypothesize this relationship will reverse under certain conditions. Figure 2 presents the proposed conceptual model to be tested. It illustrates: (1) the main effect between job dissatisfaction and COCBs, (2) the joint effects of job dissatisfaction and continuance commitment (supervisory support) on COCBs, and (3) the joint effect of the three independent variables (job dissatisfaction, continuance commitment, and supervisory support) on COCBs.

When the perceived benefits of performing COCBs exceed the perceived costs, frontline employees will be willing to develop relations based on social exchange with their organization and, consequently, engage in COCBs (e.g., Bettencourt et al. 2005). The perceived benefits of COCBs to frontline employees may be twofold: (1) promotion-based (e.g., MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1991, 1993) and (2) reciprocity-based (e.g., Gouldner 1960). The perceived cost is primarily related to the time and effort required to perform COCBs (i.e.,

FIGURE 2
Conceptual Model



opportunity costs; Blau 1964, 1968). Hence, a three-way interaction is posited among the three variables in the model to lead to the most positive relationship with COCBs, because under this condition promotion and reciprocity are most likely to occur, due in part to high supervisory support, and costs are minimized, due to high continuance commitment. Therefore, this interaction among the variables posited should lead to social exchange between employees and their organization since employees will perceive the benefits of performing COCBs to outweigh the costs. Next, I will explain in more detail how the moderators selected are anticipated to impact the withdrawal model using principles backed by SET.

5.4.2. Moderating Effect of Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment is defined as attachment to an organization due to necessity rather than affective attachment (e.g., Allen and Meyer 1990, 1996). Employees are committed to stay with an organization, regardless of emotional detachment, when they have too few options for alternative employment or have committed too much of themselves to leave (e.g., Gruen, Summers, and Acito 2000; Gundlach, Achrol, and Mentzer 1995; Mathieu and Zajac 1990; Wiener 1982).

Continuance commitment ensures that employees will remain members of the organization, thus negating the possibility of active behavioral withdrawal through voluntary turnover (cf. Hirschman 1970). While employed with an organization, individuals who are dissatisfied with their job have two viable options in regards to their performance of COCBs (e.g., Farrell 1983; Rusbult et al. 1988). First, employees may put forth less effort and exhibit passive withdrawal behaviors (i.e., reduced provision of COCBs), thus acting in accordance with the withdrawal model. Second, employees otherwise may voluntarily exert extra effort by way of COCBs. I argue continuance commitment will impede employees who are dissatisfied with their job from undergoing passive withdrawal behaviors, such as reducing COCBs, and in turn influence them to deposit extra effort into the organizational system.

I offer two reasons why employees who are both dissatisfied with their jobs and high in continuance commitment are likely to react to job dissatisfaction by performing COCBs. First, grounded in SET, the argument can be made that when continuance commitment is high employees' opportunity costs associated with forming a relation based on social exchange with their current organization are lowered (Blau 1964, 1968). Blau (1964) states that the degree of one's opportunity costs "depends on the alternatives foregone by devoting it [time] to a given

exchange relation” (p. 101). If other alternatives for employment are not available in the market, a condition of high continuance commitment, then employees will perceive the costs associated with their present employment situation to be lower.

Second, employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs and high in continuance commitment may look to promotion within the organization as a career path that will alleviate dissatisfaction. Referring again to the cost-benefit analysis of social exchange, since COCBs are likely to have a profound impact on promotion-based decisions, employees may perceive the benefits of performing COCBs to be greater than the costs (e.g., Allen 2006). Indeed, previous studies empirically demonstrate that OCBs contribute to supervisors’ evaluations of subordinate’s performance (e.g., Allen and Rush 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1991, 1993). MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1993) found that OCBs contribute to supervisors’ performance evaluations of their personnel even more so than objective sales performance. Accordingly, employees may use COCBs as a means of impression management to appeal to their supervisor and, in effect, increase their chance of receiving a promotion (e.g., Bolino 1999).

I propose that when continuance commitment is high it will moderate the negative relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs such that it will make the relationship weaker. Employees high in continuance commitment are likely to perceive the benefits of performing COCBs to be greater than the costs since promotion-based decisions depend on COCBs, thus increasing the benefits, and employees’ opportunity costs of performing COCBs are lowered because alternatives foregone are null. Hence, under the condition of high continuance commitment, employees are expected to enter a social exchange with their organization by means of using COCBs as an avenue to do so.

However, when continuance commitment is low, employees are likely to reduce their provision of COCBs since such behaviors are discretionary in nature. Employees who are dissatisfied with their job and have alternative options of employment are expected to define their relation with their current organization in terms of an economic exchange. In turn, when continuance commitment is low it is expected that the negative relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs will be stronger.

H2. The negative relationship between job dissatisfaction and customer-oriented citizenship behaviors is moderated by continuance commitment such that the relationship is weaker for higher levels of continuance commitment.

5.4.3. Moderating Effect of Supervisory Support

Supervisory support is defined as the degree to which supervisors can be relied upon by subordinates to both help and resolve issues, especially during times of difficulty (e.g., Bell, Menguc, and Stefani 2004; House 1981). As a function of relational internal marketing, supervisory support is a mechanism through which vertical relationships can foster an environment that promotes employee motivation (e.g., Bell, Menguc, and Stefani 2004). Accordingly, I propose that supervisory support will encourage employees to react constructively in response to job dissatisfaction.

Two explanations help to understand how supervisory support influences employee motivation. First, just as frontline employees seemingly are the organization to customers, supervisors seemingly are the organization to frontline employees (Konovsky and Pugh 1994). In this sense, supervisory behavior largely contributes to subordinates' motivation due to their high levels of contact; thus, helpful and supportive efforts are likely to influence ERBs (i.e., COCBs) on the part of subordinates (e.g., Ball et al. 1994; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Paine 1999). Second, reciprocity norms hold that supervisory support will influence subordinates to

respond to job dissatisfaction in a positive manner (e.g., Blau 1964; Gouldner 1960; Homans 1958). If subordinates witness supervisors being empathetic to their concerns and issues, they are likely to reciprocate by acting in the same manner to customers (e.g., Menguc 2000). Customer-oriented citizenship behaviors, then, are employees' means of discharging their obligation to reciprocate to supervisory supportiveness behaviors.

Support is given for the relationship between leader behaviors (a construct that encompasses supervisory support) and citizenship behavior in a meta-analysis by Podsakoff and colleagues (2000), where they find a significant positive relationship between the two constructs. Therefore, I anticipate that this result will transfer to the realm of COCBs given that they stem from the citizenship literature. Hence, for the adverse situation of an employee who is dissatisfied, I expect the negative relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs to be weaker when supervisory support is high and stronger when supervisory support is low. This hypothesis follows previous discussion:

H3. The negative relationship between job dissatisfaction and customer-oriented citizenship behaviors is moderated by supervisory support such that the relationship is weaker for higher levels of supervisory support.

5.4.2. Three-way Interaction among Job Dissatisfaction, Continuance Commitment, and Supervisory Support

Further, it is proposed that when employees who are dissatisfied are also committed to an organization out of necessity, supervisory support may act as a contingent factor in the relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs. If proven, this finding will contribute to practitioners' understanding of what measures can be taken when dealing with employees who are dissatisfied, yet have nowhere else to go. The situation of employees who are committed to an organization solely due to continuance commitment poses potential deleterious effects on organizational performance (e.g., Meyer et al. 1989). However, if employees who may

otherwise cause disturbances in the workplace and provide poor customer service are influenced by supervisors to deposit COCBs into the organizational system, these impacts can be negated. In this sense, it is important to understand the three-way interaction among job dissatisfaction, continuance commitment, and supervisory support because it provides organizations with a controllable means to solve a problem that is otherwise out of their hands.

To reiterate, a relation defined in terms of social exchange is necessary for frontline employees to deposit COCBs into the organization (Organ 1990). Frontline employees must expect that their voluntary contributions will be reciprocated in the future in order for them to perform them. It is argued here that continuance commitment will increase the benefits (i.e., promotion-based) and decrease the costs (i.e., opportunity costs) of social exchange and that supervisory support will further increase the benefits (i.e., reciprocity-based) of such. Accordingly, frontline employees will perceive the cost-benefit analysis of social exchange to be favorable and will perform COCBs when all constructs are at their respective high levels. As such, high continuance commitment coupled with high supervisory support is expected to lead to the most positive relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs:

H4. Job dissatisfaction, continuance commitment, and supervisory support interact to affect customer-oriented citizenship behaviors in such a way that job dissatisfaction will have the strongest, positive relationship with customer-oriented citizenship behaviors when continuance commitment is high and supervisory support is high.

6. RESEARCH METHOD

6.1. Sample and Data Collection Procedure

The data were collected from three organizations that operate within the financial services and travel agency industries. Participating organizations were initially contacted by means of an invitation letter that introduced the project to top managers. To influence managers to participate, I promised to provide a summary report upon completion of the project specific to their employees' responses. After securing top management support, I followed a total design method and sent packets containing a consent form, a questionnaire, and a postage-paid envelope to managers (Dillman 1978). Managers then individually distributed packets to frontline employees. Within the consent form, frontline employees were notified of the voluntary nature of the questionnaire and were assured that their responses would not affect their employment or status within their organization. To further ensure confidentiality, respondents were asked to personally return the completed packet to me by mail, which ultimately eliminated any possibility of management gaining access to completed questionnaires.

Incorporating organizations from the financial services and travel agency industries into the same dataset poses both benefits and threats to the validity of this research project. A major benefit associated with including multiple samples into the same dataset is that this method allows subsequent findings to be generalized across the two industries studied. Despite this important benefit, previous researchers investigating COCBs have limited their analysis to a single sample within a single industry (e.g., Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Bettencourt et al. 2005; Maxham and Netemeyer 2003; Payne and Webber 2006; Schneider et al. 2005; Sun et al. 2007; see Bettencourt et al. 2001 for a rare exception). This limitation drastically reduces the

practicality of implications that can be drawn from these research efforts, a shortcoming that my research will not suffer from.

However, the apparent threat of including multiple samples into the same dataset is the associated “noise” (cf. Bell, Menguc, and Widing, in press), or extraneous sources of variation (cf. Morgan and Hunt 1994), that simultaneously enters the data when more than one sample is included. Much effort and care was taken during the data collection process to minimize this threat posed by multiple samples in order to reap the benefits of such (i.e., generalizability).

Though organizations differ markedly in characteristics such as age, size, and strategy, which are sources of stochastic variance (i.e., noise), the frontline setting is undoubtedly constant across organizations and industries that employ frontline workers (Katzenbach and Santamaria 1999). It is postulated by Katzenbach and Santamaria (1999) that little pay, monotonous tasks, and low emotional attachment of frontline employees is uniform across frontline settings. Backed by this premise, it can be argued that little noise exists across organizations and industries at the frontline level.

To further ensure similarity across the samples included in the dataset, I collected data from two *high-contact* service settings: financial institutions and travel agencies. High contact service settings (i.e., financial institutions, travel agencies, restaurants, clothing retail stores, and hair salons) differ from low-contact service settings (i.e., call centers) in that high-contact service settings are characterized by intensive employee-customer physical interaction, whereas low-contact service settings are not. Applying this condition to the data collection selection process kept the employee-customer relationship relatively constant across the service settings studied; thus, 'noise' was removed from the dataset.

The data collection procedure at all participating organizations was carried out in a uniform manner in order to eliminate systematic error from the data collection process. Managers were initially asked to distribute questionnaires to all frontline employees of their organization, which resulted in 164 surveys being distributed. This initial mailing, across all companies, generated 57 usable surveys. After two weeks, an email was sent by managers to frontline employees to encourage nonrespondents to complete the survey. The reminder email generated an additional 70 usable surveys. In total, I collected 127 surveys that were adequately completed and could be entered into the dataset, yielding a 77 percent response rate. Given that the response rate is above 70 percent, any concerns of nonresponse bias are alleviated (Armstrong and Overton 1977; Kanuk and Berenson 1975).

TABLE 4
Demographic Information

Demographic Variable	Company			Total
	Financial Institution A	Financial Institution B	Travel Agency	
Male	1	24	3	28
Female	17	14	59	90
High school	3	10	30	43
Bachelor's degree	8	16	14	38
Graduate degree	7	12	18	37
Married	14	33	44	91
Single	3	5	18	26
Age	$\mu = 44$ years	$\mu = 42$ years	$\mu = 40$ years	$\mu = 41$ years
Company tenure	$\mu = 7$ years	$\mu = 16$ years	$\mu = 11$ years	$\mu = 12$ years
Service experience	$\mu = 14$ years	$\mu = 16$ years	$\mu = 18$ years	$\mu = 17$ years
Training	$\mu = 12$ days	$\mu = 6$ days	$\mu = 4$ days	$\mu = 6$ days
Salary increase	$\mu = 9.6\%$	$\mu = 7.4\%$	$\mu = 5.7\%$	$\mu = 6.8\%$
Total respondents	18	38	71	127
Total nonrespondents	0	12	25	37
Response Rate	100%	76%	74%	77%

6.2. Demographic Information

The average age of respondents in the sample is 41 years old and 78 percent are married. On average, six days of customer service training was offered to respondents in the previous year. Respondents had been employed with their current organization for an average of 11 years and had worked in the service industry for an average of 17 years. Over the past two years, the respondents had received an average increase in salary of 6.8 percent. All demographic statistics of respondents can be found above in Table 4.

6.3. Measures

The scales used in the frontline employee questionnaire have been adopted from established scales used in previous research endeavors. The questionnaire included measures of job dissatisfaction, continuance commitment, supervisory support, and COCBs, among others. All scales were rated using five-point Likert-type questions anchored by the dichotomous statements "strongly disagree" (1) and "strongly agree" (5). Table 5 provides a list of the measurement items that make up these scales and cites their origin.

Job dissatisfaction was captured with a three-item scale created by O'Reilly and Caldwell (1981). This scale provides an overall score of an employee's dissatisfaction with his or her job and has maintained acceptable levels of internal reliability in previous research studies (e.g., Menguc, Han, and Auh 2007). The measurement items in Table 5 that are indicated with an asterisk are reverse-coded during data analysis in order to measure job dissatisfaction as opposed to job satisfaction.

Customer-oriented citizenship behaviors were measured as a higher-order construct comprised of: (1) *extra-role customer service* (i.e., going 'above and beyond' role-expected

TABLE 5
Survey Items

Constructs
Job Dissatisfaction (O'Reilly and Caldwell 1981)
Overall, I am satisfied with my job (r).
I would prefer another, more ideal job.
I am satisfied with the important aspects of my job (r).
Extra-role customer service (Bettencourt and Brown 1997)
I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.
I often willingly go out of my way to make a customer satisfied.
I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements.
I often help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required.
Internal influence (Bettencourt, Gwinner, and Meuter 2001)
I make constructive suggestions for customer service improvement.
I contribute many ideas for customer promotions and communications.
I share creative solutions to customers' problems with my coworkers.
I encourage my coworkers to contribute their ideas and suggestions for service improvement.
Service delivery (Bettencourt, Brown, and MacKenzie 2005)
I follow customer service guidelines with extreme care.
I follow up in a timely manner to customers' requests and problems.
Regardless of circumstances, I am exceptionally courteous and respectful to customers.
I follow through in a conscientious manner on promises to customers.
I take time to understand customers' needs on an individual basis.
Continuance Commitment (Allen and Meyer 1990)
Right now, staying with this organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
It would be very hard for me to leave this organization right now, even if I wanted to.
Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave this organization right now.
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
Supervisory Support (adapted from House 1981)
My supervisor can be relied upon when things get difficult in my job.
My supervisor is willing to listen to my job-related problems.
My supervisor is helpful to me in getting my job done.

(r) reverse-scored item

duties to satisfy the customer), (2) *internal influence* (i.e., offering both contributions and encouragement to improve an organization's service provision to customers), and (3) *service delivery* (i.e., taking a conscientious, adaptive, courteous, and respective approach to service delivery). Extra-role customer service was captured using a four-item scale developed by Bettencourt and Brown (1997), internal influence from a four-item scale developed by Bettencourt and colleagues (2001), and service delivery from a five-item scale used by Bettencourt and Brown (2003).

Continuance commitment was obtained with a widely used six-item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1996). The measurement items in this scale gauge continuance commitment by determining employees' availability of alternative options for employment and current stake in the organization. Thus, their attachment to the organization due to necessity rather than affective attachment was measured.

Supervisory support was operationalized using a three-item scale adapted from House (1981). For the purposes of this thesis, I define supervisory support as the degree to which supervisors can be relied upon by subordinates to both help and resolve issues, especially during times of difficulty (i.e., job dissatisfaction).

6.4. Control Variables

To circumvent possible model misspecification, I entered six control variables into the regression equation. First, *customer service training* may influence frontline employees to perceive COCBs as more in-role than extra-role. Given that performance of ERBs depends on an employee's definition of such behavior the amount of customer service training received by frontline employees in the previous year was controlled for (e.g., Wolfe Morrison 1994). In addition, *service experience* and *salary increases* may influence the ability and motivation of

frontline employees to perform COCBs. Accordingly, overall experience in a service position and salary increases over the previous two years were controlled for. Training, service experience, and salary increases were all computed as the natural log-transformations when entered as controls. *Marital status* was coded (1- married; 2- single) and included as a control because work-family stress has been proven to affect customer service performance (Netemeyer, Maxham, and Pullig 2005). *Co-worker developmental feedback* was included to control for the impact co-workers may have on the development of a focal employee's social exchange relation with the organization. Finally, *autonomy* was controlled for given that independence and freedom may influence frontline employees to interact with customers with extra effort (e.g., Bell and Menguc 2002; Niehoff and Moorman 1993).

7. ANALYSES AND FINDINGS

7.1. Measure Assessment

7.1.1. Measurement Model

Following Anderson and Gerbing (1988), I estimated an eight-factor measurement model. For scale items to be kept in a measurement model, Anderson and Gerbing proposed that factor loadings must exceed .40, normalized residuals must be less than 2.58, and modification indices must be less than 3.84. Through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), I found all factor loadings of the measurement items within my conceptual model (except for two items in the continuance commitment scale and one item in the job dissatisfaction scale) to be above the critical value of .40, all normalized residuals to be less than 2.58, and all modification indices to be less than 3.84 (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). In order to improve model fit, I deleted two of the three items from the model that did not demonstrate good fit to the data (i.e., the items with factor loadings below .30) and reran the model in AMOS 17.0.

Despite its low factor loading of .378, the sixth item in the continuance commitment scale, “one of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives,” was included in the respecified model due to its high theoretical relevance to this study. Researchers acknowledge that it is important to incorporate theoretical considerations into model respecification decisions rather than to base such decisions solely on statistical estimates (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). Justification for keeping measurement items with factor loadings above .30 is also present in the literature (Bagozzi and Yi 1988). Thus, since the sixth item in the continuance commitment scale applies to SET principles and aligns well with the conceptual model of this paper I decided to include it in the respecified model.

After deleting the second item from the job dissatisfaction scale (factor loading= .087) and the fifth item from the continuance commitment scale (factor loading= .156), the respecified measurement model demonstrated an acceptable fit to the data: $\chi^2_{(349)} = 487.5$, goodness-of-fit (GFI) = .81, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .93, confirmatory fit index (CFI) = .94, root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) = .06, and normed fit index (NFI) = .83. Hair et al. (1995) acknowledge that a good fitting model will hold when: (1) GFI, TLI, CFI, and NFI are all above .90 and (2) RMSEA is below .05. Since all overall model-fit indices either exceed these thresholds or are close to doing so, the respecified model is deemed to display an acceptable fit to the data. In addition, after respecifying the model, the sixth item in the continuance commitment scale proved to be a better indicator of continuance commitment with a resulting factor loading of .597.

7.1.2. Convergent Validity

With overall model fit assured, measurement model fit indices were applied to the model in order to address concerns of convergent and discriminant validity. To assess convergent validity, I examined the estimated coefficients, composite reliability, and average variance extracted of the constructs within the model. Gerbing and Anderson (1988) proposed that measures with estimated coefficients in excess of .40, and corresponding t-values greater than two, demonstrate convergent validity (i.e., all measures of a construct strongly relate to the underlying construct being measured). In my respecified model all measures sufficed to this standard, suggesting convergent validity (Table 6). To further confirm this finding I computed composite reliability and average variance extracted estimates and reported them in Table 6. The respective calculations for these two measures of reliability are as follows:

$$\text{Composite Reliabilities (CR)} = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum \lambda_i)^2 + \sum \theta_i}$$

$$\text{Average Variance Extracted (AVE)} = \frac{\sum \lambda_i^2}{\sum \lambda_i^2 + \sum \theta_i}$$

where:

λ_i = standardized loading for measurement item i

$\theta_i = (1 - \lambda_i^2)$ = measurement error for measurement item i

All constructs exceeded their respective thresholds of acceptance for both CR (.70) and AVE (.50) (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black 1995); thus, support was further provided for the notion of convergent validity. Explicitly, based on acceptable CR levels, it is suggested that the measures of each construct sufficiently represent the underlying construct they were intend to (Gerbing and Anderson 1988); and, based on acceptable levels of AVE, it is indicated that commonality exists among the measures of the constructs employed in this thesis (Bagozzi and Yi 1988).

7.1.3. Discriminant Validity

Similarly, discriminant validity was supported, implying that the different constructs implemented in this thesis are conceptually separable (Lattin, Carroll, and Green 2003). I applied three tests to the model in order to confirm that discriminant validity is not an issue. First, none of the 95 percent confidence intervals for correlations in the model include one, which is an indication of discriminant validity (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). To test for this, the 95 percent confidence intervals for the correlations were calculated using the following formula (Roscoe 1975):

$$\rho = z' \pm Z_{1-\alpha/2} (\sigma_z)$$

where:

ρ = the 95% confidence interval of r in terms of z'

z' = the Fisher's z' transformation of r

$Z_{1-\alpha/2}$ = the 100(1- α /2) % cumulative value of the standard normal curve

$\sigma_z = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N-3}}$ = the standard error, where N= sample size

TABLE 6
Results of Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Constructs and items	Initial		Respecified	
	Factor loading	t-value	Factor loading	t-value
Job Dissatisfaction ($r = .55$)				
1. Overall, I am satisfied with my job (r)	.596 ^a	-	.654 ^a	-
2. I would prefer another, more ideal job	.087	.866	(d)	(d)
3. I am satisfied with the important aspects of my job (r)	.766	5.925	.523	4.174
Continuance Commitment ($\alpha = .82$; CR = .83; AVE = .50)				
1. Right now, staying with this organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	.670 ^a	-	.690 ^a	-
2. It would be very hard for me to leave this organization right now, even if I wanted to	.891	8.389	.794	7.353
3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave this organization right now	.889	8.319	.717	7.087
4. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	.544	5.615	.717	6.591
5. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere	.156	1.646	(d)	(d)
6. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives	.378	3.946	.597	5.615
Supervisory Support ($\alpha = .92$; CR = .92; AVE = .80)				
1. My supervisor can be relied upon when things get difficult in my job	.971 ^a	-	.969 ^a	-
2. My supervisor is willing to listen to my job-related problems	.869	15.384	.869	15.466
3. My supervisor is helpful to me in getting my job done	.830	13.926	.832	13.968
Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors ($\alpha = .94$; CR = .92; AVE = .79)				
<i>Extra-Role Customer Service</i> ($\alpha = .93$; CR = .93; AVE = .76)				
1. I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers	.904 ^a	-	.902 ^a	-
2. I often willingly go out of my way to make a customer satisfied	.877	14.483	.874	14.330
3. I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements	.840	13.165	.842	13.174
4. I often help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required	.858	13.937	.862	13.988
<i>Internal Influence</i> ($\alpha = .87$; CR = .88; AVE = .64)				
1. I make constructive suggestions for customer service improvement	.842 ^a	-	.841 ^a	-
2. I contribute many ideas for customer promotions and communications	.765	9.870	.766	9.874
3. I share creative solutions to customers' problems with my coworkers	.834	10.789	.835	10.792
4. I encourage my coworkers to contribute their ideas and suggestions for service improvement	.760	9.499	.759	9.476
<i>Service Delivery</i> ($\alpha = .89$; CR = .90; AVE = .65)				
1. I follow customer service guidelines with extreme care	.770 ^a	-	.768 ^a	-
2. I follow up in a timely manner to customers' requests and problems	.684	7.806	.683	7.788
3. Regardless of circumstances, I am exceptionally courteous and respectful to customers	.839	10.119	.840	10.093

4. I follow through in a conscientious manner on promises to customers	.824	9.703	.823	9.672
5. I take time to understand customers' needs on an individual basis	.901	10.823	.903	10.809
Autonomy ($\alpha = .78$; CR = .78; AVE = .54)				
1. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job	.725 ^a	-	.724 ^a	-
2. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my job	.686	6.638	.693	6.534
3. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job	.784	6.932	.779	6.686
Co-worker Developmental Feedback ($\alpha = .92$; CR = .92; AVE = .80)				
1. I find the feedback that I receive from my co-workers on my service to customers very useful	.813 ^a	-	.813 ^a	-
2. My co-workers provide me with valuable information about how to improve my customer service	.911	12.625	.912	12.622
3. The feedback I receive from my coworkers helps me improve my customer service	.952	13.172	.951	13.141

Notes: ^a Item was fixed to 1 to set the scale of the construct; (r) reverse scored item; (d) deleted item; α = Cronbach's alpha; CR= Composite reliability; AVE= Average variance extracted; r= Pearson's correlation; Reliability and validity statistics are reported for the respecified model.

The first step to calculate a 95 percent confidence interval for a correlation is to convert Pearson's correlation to Fisher's z' . (This conversion can be completed using the conversion table found as Table 7.) Next, the Fisher's z' , Z , and standard error terms are entered into the equation. After the upper and lower bounds of the confidence interval are calculated these figures are converted back to Pearson's correlation, once again using the conversion table. All confidence intervals of the correlations in the conceptual model can be found in Table 8.

Second, the AVE estimates for all respective pairs of constructs in the conceptual model were greater than their matching squared correlation (Fornell and Larcker 1981). All pairs of constructs, corresponding AVE estimates, and squared correlations used to complete this test can be found in Table 9. The positive outcome of this test indicates that the variance shared within each construct is greater than that shared between constructs, a necessary condition for discriminant validity (Lattin, Carroll, and Green 2003).

Third, across all pairs of constructs, the chi-square difference between the constrained model (i.e., covariance is set to 1) and the full model (i.e., covariance is free to vary) was statistically significant such that the full model provided a better fit to the data (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Given that the constrained model is preferred over the full model, because it is more parsimonious, the hurdle to accept the full model is set at a high level. In order for the full model to be accepted, the chi-square statistic for the full model must be significantly less than the constrained model. When comparing constrained and full models, the change in degrees of freedom is always one. As such, the full model must have a chi-square statistic that is 3.84 lower than the constrained model. Table 10 illustrates that this standard was reached for all pairs of constructs, which further confirms the previous tests of discriminant validity I employed and, as a result, indicates that the constructs employed in this thesis are distinguishable.

TABLE 7
Conversion Table for Pearson's Correlation

r	z'	r	z'	r	z'	r	z'	r	z'	r	z'	r	z'	r	z'	r	z'
.00	.000	.12	.121	.24	.245	.36	.377	.48	.523	.60	.693	.72	.908	.84	1.221	.96	1.946
.01	.010	.13	.131	.25	.255	.37	.388	.49	.536	.61	.709	.73	.929	.85	1.256	.97	2.092
.02	.020	.14	.141	.26	.266	.38	.400	.50	.549	.62	.725	.74	.951	.86	1.293	.98	2.298
.03	.030	.15	.151	.27	.277	.39	.412	.51	.563	.63	.741	.75	.973	.87	1.333	.99	2.647
.04	.040	.16	.161	.28	.288	.40	.424	.52	.576	.64	.758	.76	.996	.88	1.376		
.05	.050	.17	.172	.29	.299	.41	.436	.53	.590	.65	.775	.77	1.020	.89	1.422		
.06	.060	.18	.182	.30	.310	.42	.448	.54	.604	.66	.793	.78	1.045	.90	1.472		
.07	.070	.19	.192	.31	.321	.43	.460	.55	.618	.67	.811	.79	1.071	.91	1.528		
.08	.080	.20	.203	.32	.332	.44	.472	.56	.633	.68	.829	.80	1.099	.92	1.589		
.09	.090	.21	.213	.33	.343	.45	.485	.57	.648	.69	.848	.81	1.127	.93	1.658		
.10	.100	.22	.224	.34	.354	.46	.497	.58	.663	.70	.867	.82	1.157	.94	1.738		
.11	.110	.23	.234	.35	.365	.47	.510	.59	.678	.71	.887	.83	1.188	.95	1.832		

TABLE 8
95 Percent Confidence Intervals for Correlations

		Correlation	95% Confidence Interval
Job dissatisfaction	Continuance Commitment	.26	.09 ≤ ρ ≤ .42
Job dissatisfaction	Supervisory Support	-.27	-.43 ≤ ρ ≤ -.10
Job dissatisfaction	Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors	-.41	-.55 ≤ ρ ≤ -.26
Job dissatisfaction	Autonomy	-.29	-.44 ≤ ρ ≤ -.12
Job dissatisfaction	Co-worker Developmental Feedback	-.27	-.42 ≤ ρ ≤ -.10
Continuance Commitment	Supervisory Support	.00	-.18 ≤ ρ ≤ .18
Continuance Commitment	Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors	-.03	-.21 ≤ ρ ≤ .15
Continuance Commitment	Autonomy	-.06	-.23 ≤ ρ ≤ .12
Continuance Commitment	Co-worker Developmental Feedback	.26	.09 ≤ ρ ≤ .42
Supervisory Support	Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors	.15	-.02 ≤ ρ ≤ .32
Supervisory Support	Autonomy	.19	.02 ≤ ρ ≤ .35
Supervisory Support	Co-worker Developmental Feedback	.34	.18 ≤ ρ ≤ .49
Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors	Autonomy	.45	.30 ≤ ρ ≤ .58
Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors	Co-worker Developmental Feedback	.29	.12 ≤ ρ ≤ .44
Autonomy	Co-worker Developmental Feedback	.19	.02 ≤ ρ ≤ .35

TABLE 9
Discriminant Validity Test for the Constructs

		AVE	Correlation ²	Support
Job dissatisfaction	Continuance	JD=	.26 ² = .07	Y
	Commitment	CCOM= .50		
Job dissatisfaction	Supervisory Support	JD=	-.27 ² = .07	Y
		SSUP= .80		
Job dissatisfaction	Customer-Oriented	JD=	-.41 ² = .17	Y
	Citizenship Behaviors	COCB= .68		
Job dissatisfaction	Autonomy	JD=	-.29 ² = .08	Y
		AUT= .54		
Job dissatisfaction	Co-worker	JD=	-.27 ² = .07	Y
	Developmental Feedback	CFED= .80		
Continuance	Supervisory Support	CCOM= .50	.00 ² = .00	Y
Commitment		SSUP= .80		
Continuance	Customer-Oriented	CCOM= .50	-.03 ² = .001	Y
Commitment	Citizenship Behaviors	COCB= .68		
Continuance	Autonomy	CCOM= .50	-.06 ² = .004	Y
Commitment		AUT= .54		
Continuance	Co-worker	CCOM= .50	.26 ² = .07	Y
Commitment	Developmental Feedback	CFED= .80		
Supervisory Support	Customer-Oriented	SSUP= .80	.15 ² = .02	Y
	Citizenship Behaviors	COCB= .68		
Supervisory Support	Autonomy	SSUP= .80	.19 ² = .04	Y
		AUT= .54		
Supervisory Support	Co-worker	SSUP= .80	.34 ² = .12	Y
	Developmental Feedback	CFED= .80		
Customer-Oriented	Autonomy	COCB= .68	.45 ² = .20	Y
Citizenship Behaviors		AUT= .54		
Customer-Oriented	Co-worker	COCB= .68	.29 ² = .08	Y
Citizenship Behaviors	Developmental Feedback	CFED= .80		
Autonomy	Co-worker	AUT= .54	.19 ² = .04	Y
	Developmental Feedback	CFED= .80		

Note: JD= Job dissatisfaction; CCOM= Continuance commitment; SSUP= Supervisory support; COCB= Customer-oriented citizenship behavior; AUT= Autonomy; CFED= Co-worker developmental feedback.

TABLE 10
Discriminant Validity Test for the Constructs

		Constrained Model	Unconstrained Model	$\Delta\chi^2$
Job dissatisfaction	Continuance Commitment	$\chi^2 = 73.9$ df = 14	$\chi^2 = 61.7$ df = 13	$\Delta\chi^2 = 12.2$ df = 1
Job dissatisfaction	Supervisory Support	$\chi^2 = 59.5$ df = 5	$\chi^2 = 2.4$ df = 4	$\Delta\chi^2 = 57.1$ df = 1
Job dissatisfaction	Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors	$\chi^2 = 399.1$ df = 90	$\chi^2 = 295.0$ df = 89	$\Delta\chi^2 = 104.1$ df = 1
Job dissatisfaction	Autonomy	$\chi^2 = 78.8$ df = 5	$\chi^2 = 5.5$ df = 4	$\Delta\chi^2 = 73.3$ df = 1
Job dissatisfaction	Co-worker Developmental Feedback	$\chi^2 = 77.7$ df = 5	$\chi^2 = 15.9$ df = 4	$\Delta\chi^2 = 61.8$ df = 1
Continuance Commitment	Supervisory Support	$\chi^2 = 93.3$ df = 20	$\chi^2 = 42.7$ df = 19	$\Delta\chi^2 = 50.6$ df = 1
Continuance Commitment	Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors	$\chi^2 = 451.6$ df = 135	$\chi^2 = 365.6$ df = 134	$\Delta\chi^2 = 86$ df = 1
Continuance Commitment	Autonomy	$\chi^2 = 111.8$ df = 20	$\chi^2 = 40.5$ df = 19	$\Delta\chi^2 = 71.3$ df = 1
Continuance Commitment	Co-worker Developmental Feedback	$\chi^2 = 83$ df = 20	$\chi^2 = 51.6$ df = 19	$\Delta\chi^2 = 31.4$ df = 1
Supervisory Support	Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors	$\chi^2 = 1530.4$ df = 104	$\chi^2 = 307.8$ df = 103	$\Delta\chi^2 = 1222.6$ df = 1
Supervisory Support	Autonomy	$\chi^2 = 67.4$ df = 9	$\chi^2 = 12.2$ df = 8	$\Delta\chi^2 = 55.2$ df = 1
Supervisory Support	Co-worker Developmental Feedback	$\chi^2 = 53.7$ df = 9	$\chi^2 = 15.4$ df = 8	$\Delta\chi^2 = 38.3$ df = 1
Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors	Autonomy	$\chi^2 = 411.7$ df = 104	$\chi^2 = 314.1$ df = 103	$\Delta\chi^2 = 97.6$ df = 1
Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors	Co-worker Developmental Feedback	$\chi^2 = 399.4$ df = 104	$\chi^2 = 323.9$ df = 103	$\Delta\chi^2 = 75.5$ df = 1
Autonomy	Co-worker Developmental Feedback	$\chi^2 = 66.2$ df = 9	$\chi^2 = 4.8$ df = 8	$\Delta\chi^2 = 61.4$ df = 1

7.2. Higher-Order Factor of Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors

Finally, following Brown's (2006) recommended sequence for conducting higher-order CFA, I empirically justified aggregating the first-order factors, extra-role customer service, internal influence, and service delivery, as a higher-order factor (COCBs) in the regression model. Brown (2006) asserted that a well fitting first-order solution for the model must be the foundation for a higher-order CFA. As previously discussed, this feat has been achieved as the first-order factors provide acceptable overall model fit in the respecified model (Table 6).

Building on these grounds, Brown (2006) recommended that researchers interpret the correlation matrix to determine whether the first-order factors that are posited as dimensions of a higher-order construct are in fact more strongly correlated with one another than they are with any other constructs in the model. The three correlations between the pairs of extra-role customer service, internal influence, and service delivery range between .65 and .78 ($p < .01$). When comparing these correlations to those in the correlation matrix (Table 11) for all other pairs of constructs in the model (highest correlation is .45) it is clearly evident that the three dimensions of COCBs are more strongly correlated with one another than they are with any other construct. Thus, it is acceptable to aggregate their measures into the higher-order construct of COCBs.

To run a higher-order CFA, Brown (2006) advised that the variance of the higher-order construct be set to one in order to standardize the construct. After following this procedure, the resulting higher-order CFA found that extra-role customer service (loading = .94; t -value = 11.35; $R^2 = .78$), internal influence (loading = .84; t -value = 8.93; $R^2 = .70$), and service delivery (loading = .89; t -value = 8.49; $R^2 = .89$) estimated the construct of COCBs well. Furthermore, the higher-order CFA demonstrated an acceptable fit to the data: $\chi^2_{(359)} = 493.1$, GFI = .80, TLI =

.94, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .05, and NFI = .82. The measurement model fit indices, Cronbach's alpha (.92), composite reliability (.92), and average variance extracted (.79), for the higher-order construct of COCBs further supported the findings that a higher-order construct is acceptable. Based on these favorable results, the subdimensions of extra-role customer service, internal influence, and service delivery were aggregated as the higher-order construct of COCBs during regression analysis.

7.3. Common Method Variance

Common method variance (CMV) is defined as artificial correlation among constructs due to the measurement method employed (Podsakoff et al. 2003). Of the many sources of CMV, self-report bias (i.e., the spurious covariance between predictor and criterion variables because both responses come from a common rater) is the most pertinent to this thesis because responses for both job dissatisfaction (the predictor variable) and COCBs (the criterion variable) were obtained from frontline employees. To limit the negative consequences that accompany self-report questionnaires, I considered the procedural and statistical remedies as follows.

7.3.1. Procedural Remedies

First, respondent anonymity was protected in order to decrease the threat of social desirability bias (i.e., the inclination to respond to items in a desirable way despite personal feelings), a major source of CMV. To secure respondents' anonymity, questionnaires were designed such that no unique identifying variable (i.e., a signature or a linking variable) was collected. Therefore, after respondents submitted a questionnaire their responses could not be traced back to their name, which in turn minimized both respondent evaluation apprehension and the threat of social desirability bias (Podsakoff et al. 2003).

Second, as recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003), respondents were informed that

TABLE 11
Correlations and Descriptive Statistics (N= 127)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Continuance commitment										
2. Supervisory support	.00									
3. Job dissatisfaction	.26**	-.27**								
4. Customer-oriented citizenship behaviors	-.03	.15	-.41**							
5. Co-worker feedback	.26**	.34**	-.27**	.29**						
6. Autonomy	-.06	.19*	-.29**	.45**	.19*					
7. Training	-.14	.18*	-.10	.14	.09	.14				
8. Service experience	-.05	-.06	-.14	.19*	-.02	.12	-.12			
9. Salary increase	.04	.15	-.12	.05	.02	.13	.36**	-.13		
10. Marital	.06	-.03	-.04	-.06	.05	-.10	-.07	-.24**	-.11	
Mean	3.16	4.12	1.84	4.43	3.84	4.06	5.54	16.77	.07	1.22
SD	.91	.88	.60	.53	.93	.67	8.54	9.18	.08	.40

Notes: * $p \leq .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

there is no right or wrong answer to any of the questions included in the questionnaire. In doing so, it is more likely that respondents' ratings will reflect their true feelings. Specifically, this statement appeared in bold, upper case letters in the header of the questionnaire:

Please note that there is no right or wrong answer for any of the following statements. Your responses will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for academic research purposes only.

Third, concerns of measurement item ambiguity (Tourangeau, Rasinski, and D'Andrade 2000) were dealt with by adopting scales that can be applied across service settings. Given the multi-industry sample employed in this thesis, it is important for respondents from different frontline settings to be able to comprehend the statements within the questionnaire in a uniform manner. To achieve this end, scales that have consistently demonstrated reliability across different service settings were used. For instance, the dimensions of COCBs measured in the questionnaire have been applied to at least eight different research settings at the frontline level. In addition to their wide use, these scales have achieved sufficient reliability as well (Cronbach's $\alpha > .70$) (Table 2). To that effect, threats of acquiescence bias (i.e., the tendency of respondents to give extreme answers, for example, yea-saying or nay-saying) are minimized because the scales used hold meaning across service settings (cf. Winkler, Kanouse, and Ware 1982).

However, given the nature of the measurement method utilized in this thesis (i.e., a single-method research design), all concerns of CMV cannot be alleviated through procedural remedies. Questionnaires conducted at a single point in time by a single rater lend themselves to such biases as social desirability, acquiescence, consistency motif, implicit theories, and transient mood state that cannot be completely addressed by procedural remedies (cf. Podsakoff et al. 2003). That said, to mitigate concerns of CMV, I followed a diagnostic technique originally developed by Lindell and Whitney (2001) and then modified by Malhotra et al. (2006).

7.3.2. Statistical Remedy

Lindell and Whitney's (2001) marker-variable technique systematically partials out method variance from the zero-order correlation matrix in order to account for CMV. This procedure is applied using an estimate of method variance that is obtained with a marker variable (i.e., a manifest construct deliberately included in the questionnaire that, based on theoretical grounds, is unrelated to at least one construct in the model). Consistent with recent applications of this procedure (Grayson 2007; Malhotra, Kim, and Patil 2006; Menguc and Auh, in press), this estimate will be termed r_m hereafter.

Since the expected correlation between two theoretically distinct constructs is zero, Lindell and Whitney (2001) proposed that researchers can conservatively estimate method variance using r_m (seeing as the derivation of r_m from zero is only partially explained by method variance). This estimate is then entered into an equation that adjusts zero-order correlations for CMV. Subsequently, these adjusted correlations can be interpreted in relation to their corresponding zero-order correlations to determine the extent to which CMV inflates the relationships among the constructs in the model. If a substantial amount of significant correlations in the original correlation matrix become nonsignificant after the adjustment, it is likely that CMV is a threatening alternative explanation for the observed relationships. On the other hand, support is provided for the argument that CMV does not inflate the relationships among the constructs in the model if the majority of significant zero-order correlations remain significant after the adjustment.

Unfortunately, a marker variable was not included in the questionnaire utilized in this thesis a priori. Under this circumstance, Lindell and Brandt (2000) indicated that an estimate for method variance can be determined in an ad hoc manner by selecting the smallest positive

correlation among constructs in the model. However, the risk associated with estimating method variance in this fashion is that the researcher may be capitalizing on chance, thereby selecting an estimate of method variance that is underestimated. In order to limit a researcher's opportunity to capitalize on chance, Malhotra et al. (2006) recommended the use of the second-smallest correlation between manifest variables (i.e., scale-item constructs) as r_m . This approach increases the hurdle to reject CMV as a concern and provides a more stringent test. Provided the lack of a marker variable and the conservatism of Malhotra et al.'s (2006) test, I applied this approach to the model.

Lindell and Whitney's (2001) stepwise process for implementing the marker-variable technique was consulted as a foundation to apply the ad hoc procedure recommended by Malhotra et al. (2006). Accordingly, two alterations were required of the zero-order correlation matrix to apply a marker-variable test. The first alteration reverse-scored constructs that exhibited a preponderance of negative correlations in the zero-order correlation matrix (i.e., continuance commitment and job dissatisfaction) to make their respective correlations with other constructs positive (Lindell and Whitney 2001). Second, marital status was eliminated from further testing because, due to the fact that it was dummy coded, it showed artificially negative correlations with most constructs and, in one instance, a statistically significant negative correlation with service experience (Lindell and Whitney 2001).

With the newly constructed correlation matrix (Table 12) intact, the estimate of method variance (r_m) was selected. In line with Malhotra et al. (2006), this selection was completed from a pool of zero-order correlations that included only manifest variables (e.g., continuance commitment, supervisory support, job dissatisfaction, COCBs, co-worker feedback, and autonomy) in order to reach a conservative estimate of r_m . From this subset of zero-order

correlations, the second-smallest correlation was selected (Malhotra et al. 2006). Subsequently, the method variance was estimated at .06 (i.e., $r_m = .06$), which is the correlation between continuance commitment and autonomy found in Table 12. Next, zero-order correlations were adjusted for CMV using r_m and their resultant significance levels were calculated using the following two formulas (Grayson 2007):

$$r_{ijm} = \frac{(r_{ij} - r_m)}{(1 - r_m)}$$

$$t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}, N-3} = \frac{r_{ijm}}{\sqrt{(1 - r_{ijm}^2)/(N - 3)}}$$

where:

r_{ij} = the zero-order correlation coefficient between constructs i and j

r_m = the method variance adjustment (i.e., the smallest correlation between a predictor and the criterion variable)

r_{ijm} = the adjusted correlation

$t_{\frac{\alpha}{2}, N-3}$ = the t-value of the adjusted correlation

N = the sample size

In Table 12, I report the adjusted correlations in a manner consistent with previous researchers (Agustin and Singh 2005; Grayson 2007; Menguc and Auh, in press). As such, the zero-order correlations are presented below the diagonal and their corresponding adjustments above the diagonal. Table 12 indicates that of the 36 zero-order correlations present in the table only four became nonsignificant as a result of the adjustment, while one nonsignificant correlation became significant. Given that a majority of the significant correlations remained significant these findings indicate that the concerns associated with collecting responses from a common rater can be relaxed.

TABLE 12
Marker-Variable Test for Common Method Variance

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Continuance commitment (r)		-.06	.21*	-.03	-.34**	.00	.08	-.01	-.10
2. Supervisory support	.00		.22*	.10	.29**	.14	.12	-.13	.10
3. Job dissatisfaction (r)	.26**	.27**		.37**	.22**	.24**	.04	.08	.07
4. Customer-oriented citizenship behaviors	.03	.15	.41**		.24**	.41**	.09	.13	-.01
5. Co-worker feedback	-.26**	.34**	.27**	.29**		.14	.03	-.08	-.04
6. Autonomy	.06	.19*	.29**	.45**	.19*		.08	.06	.08
7. Training	.14	.18*	.10	.14	.09	.14		-.19*	.32**
8. Service experience	.05	-.06	.14	.19*	-.02	.12	-.12		-.20
9. Salary increase	-.04	.15	.12	.05	.02	.13	.36**	-.13	
Mean	2.84	4.12	4.16	4.43	3.84	4.06	5.54	16.77	.07
SD	.91	.88	.60	.53	.93	.67	8.54	.08	.40

Notes: * $p \leq .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed test)

TABLE 13
Results (Dependent Variable- Customer-Oriented Citizenship Behaviors)

Variables	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
	B	t	B	t	B	t	B	t	B	t
<i>Constant</i>	1.96	4.12***	2.41	4.91***	2.49	5.34***	2.41	4.92***	2.56	5.64***
Control variables										
Training (ln)	.05	.90	.06	1.05	.02	.28	.06	1.04	-.01	-.12
Service experience (ln)	.14	1.90	.11	1.43	.10	1.45	.11	1.47	.11	1.57
Salary increase (ln)	-.01	-.09	-.04	-.47	-.02	-0.27	-.03	-.42	.02	.25
Marital	.08	.62	.03	.22	.03	.28	.03	.26	.08	.70
Co-worker feedback	.14	2.85**	.10	1.82	.13	2.51*	.11	2.03*	.16	2.96**
Autonomy	.34	4.59***	.27	3.61**	.25	3.48**	.27	3.62***	.22	3.03**
Main effects										
Job dissatisfaction (1)			-.25	-2.63*	-.22	-2.42*	-.24	-2.67**	-.17	-1.89
Continuance commitment (2)			.01	.23	.01	.18			.04	.69
Supervisory support (3)			.01	.11			.01	.10	-.04	-.73
Two-way interactions										
1 x 2					.27	3.23**			.38	4.32***
1 x 3							.04	.43	.03	.34
2 x 3									.05	1.06
Three-way interaction										
1 x 2 x 3									.21	2.63*
R^2	.31		.36		.43		.36		.48	
ΔR^2			.05		.07		.00		.04	
<i>F-model</i>	6.79***		5.64***		7.45***		5.66***		6.15***	
ΔF			2.62		10.46***		.18		6.92*	

Note: Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed test)

7.4. Hypotheses Testing

Table 13 displays the results of the moderated hierarchical regression analysis I conducted to test the hypotheses posited in this thesis (Cohen and Cohen 1983). Specifically, with COCBs as the criterion variable, I included the control variables (Model 1), the main effects (Model 2), the two-way interactions (Models 3 and 4), and the three-way interaction (Model 5) into the regression equation sequentially.

In accordance with Aiken and West's (1991) widely accepted procedure, the mean-centered values for the independent and moderating variables were calculated before they were entered into the regression equation. Reasons to conduct this procedure are twofold: interpretability and multicollinearity.

First, since the constructs were measured on Likert-type scales ranging from 1 to 5 it is vital from a practical standpoint to center the constructs around their mean. For instance, the regression coefficient for job dissatisfaction can be interpreted as the slope of COCBs on job dissatisfaction when continuance commitment and supervisory support are equal to zero (Aiken and West 1991). The practical issue associated with this interpretation when constructs are not mean centered is that zero does not exist on the scale. Subsequently, the analysis taken from the regression coefficient is meaningless. Alternatively, if the predictor variables are all mean centered, zero is the average level of the constructs. In turn, the regression coefficient can be interpreted.

Second, predictor variables are mean centered in order to minimize the threat of multicollinearity (Aiken and West 1991). I calculated the variance inflation factor (VIF) for the regression coefficients across all models in Table 13 to test if multicollinearity indeed is a concern. Since all VIF values were considerably below 10, the threshold of acceptance

suggested by Neter, Wasserman, and Kutner (1985), it is unlikely that multicollinearity exists among the variables of this study (VIF values ranged from 1.06 to 1.67).

Hypothesis 1 posited that job dissatisfaction is negatively related to COCBs based on principles derived from SET and the withdrawal model. Table 13 (Model 2) shows that the main effect from job dissatisfaction to COCBs is significant and negative ($\beta = -.25$, $t = -2.63$, $p < .05$). In turn, support was provided for Hypothesis 1, which suggests that frontline employees withdraw (decrease) COCBs as a result of psychological withdrawal (increased levels of job dissatisfaction). Hence, this finding lends support to the hypothesized negative relationship between the two constructs.

From Hypotheses 2 and 3 it was expected that the negative relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs would be positively moderated by (a) continuance commitment and (b) supervisory support, such that the negative relationship would become weaker for high levels of either moderator. In support of Hypothesis 2, the interaction term between job dissatisfaction and continuance commitment is significant and positive ($\beta = .27$, $t = 3.23$, $p < .01$) (Table 13, Model 3). Therefore, the relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs varies such that it is more positive when continuance commitment is high (one standard deviation above the mean) than when it is low (one standard deviation below the mean). In contrast, support was not provided for Hypothesis 3. The interaction term between job dissatisfaction and supervisory support was positive, but not significant ($\beta = .04$, $t = .43$, ns) (Table 13, Model 4).

Hypothesis 4 postulated that the negative relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs would be the most positive under the condition of a three-way interaction: high job dissatisfaction, high continuance commitment, and high supervisory support. The three-way

interaction of these three variables is positive and significant ($\beta = .21$, $t = 2.63$, $p < .05$), providing support for Hypothesis 4 (Table 13, Model 5).

Turning to the control variables, from Model 5 of Table 13 it is evident that two of the six control variables are significantly related to COCBs. Both co-worker developmental feedback ($\beta = .16$, $t = 2.96$, $p < .01$) and autonomy ($\beta = .34$, $t = 3.03$, $p < .01$) were found to have a significant, positive impact on COCBs. In addition, the total model explained 48 percent of the variance in the criterion variable, COCBs, as can be seen from the R-square value in Model 5.

7.5. Simple Slope Analysis and Plotting the Interaction

A significant interaction term indicates that the focal relationship varies across the range of the moderating variable(s); however, inferences cannot be made from a significant interaction term regarding the nature of the interaction (Aiken and West 1991). Following Aiken and West (1991), I used two probing techniques in order to determine whether the two- and three-way interactions found to be significant in the hypotheses testing section run parallel to Hypotheses 2 and 4, respectively.

First, I conducted a simple slope analysis to determine whether the slopes of the regression analysis at high and low levels of the moderating variable(s) were significantly different from zero. Second, after carrying out this preliminary step, the significant interactions were plotted with respect to the single predictor variable job dissatisfaction in order to visually represent the interaction.

As a final diagnostic check, I implemented a slope difference test (Dawson and Richter 2006) for the three-way interaction in order to determine whether the simple regression slopes

differed from one another. Specifically, I discuss the findings concerning the significant two-way interaction first and those relating to the significant three-way interaction second.

7.5.1. Two-Way Interaction: Simple Slope Analysis

Based on Aiken and West (1991), I conducted a simple slope analysis using the computer software program SPSS 17.0. To conduct this test, I performed three steps. First, two new variables were computed to represent high and low levels of continuance commitment (e.g., mean-centered values \pm one standard deviation) (Cohen and Cohen 1983):

$$Z_H = Z - s_Z$$

$$Z_L = Z - (-s_Z)$$

where:

- Z_H = high continuance commitment
- Z_L = low continuance commitment
- Z = the mean centered value of continuance commitment
- s_Z = the standard deviation of continuance commitment

Second, using these transformed variables, two new interaction terms (e.g., XZ_H and XZ_L) were computed:

$$XZ_H = X * Z_H$$

$$XZ_L = X * Z_L$$

where:

- XZ_H = the interaction term job dissatisfaction x high continuance commitment
- XZ_L = the interaction term job dissatisfaction x low continuance commitment

Third, job dissatisfaction (X), high (low) continuance commitment (Z_H or Z_L), and the interaction between job dissatisfaction and high (low) continuance commitment (XZ_H or XZ_L) were included in two separate regression equations that represent the relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs when continuance commitment is high and when continuance commitment is low:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z_H + \beta_3 XZ_H$$

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z_L + \beta_3 XZ_L$$

The regression coefficient β_1 in both of these equations is the *simple slope regression coefficient*, which can be interpreted to determine whether the slope of COCBs on job dissatisfaction differs from zero for the respective level of continuance commitment in the regression (Aiken and West 1991). After running the two regression equations, I found that when continuance commitment is low, the relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs is negative and statistically significant ($\beta_1 = -.46$, $t = -4.20$, $p < .001$), whereas when continuance commitment is high, the relationship is positive, but not statistically significant ($\beta_1 = .03$, $t = .21$, ns). This result provides further support for Hypothesis 2 in that it shows that the relationship is more positive when continuance commitment is high than when it is low.

7.5.2. Two-Way Interaction: Plotting the Interaction

Figure 3 is a visual representation of the relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs at high and low levels of continuance commitment. To construct this plot, I once again consulted a procedure explained by Aiken and West (1991). Table 14 demonstrates this procedure numerically.

To conduct this procedure, I first rearranged the generic regression equation for an interaction term (Table 14, 1a) in such a manner that the criterion variable, COCBs, was regressed on a single predictor variable, job dissatisfaction (Table 14, 1b). This equation, termed the simple regression equation, was then manipulated to represent the relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs at high ($Z = .91$) and low ($Z = -.91$) levels of continuance commitment, respectively (Table 14, 1c). Finally, after substituting high ($X = .60$) and low ($X = -.60$) levels of job dissatisfaction into both simple regression equations, the endpoints of the simple slopes in Figure 3 were reached (Table 14, 1d), which enabled the simple slopes to be plotted accordingly.

TABLE 14
Formulas for Plotting Two-Way Interactions

1a. Moderated Hierarchical Regression Equation (Two-Way Interaction)

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + \beta_3 W + \beta_4 XZ$$

$$= 3.00 - .22 X + .01 Z + .27 XZ$$

1b. Simple Regression Equation

$$Y = (\beta_1 + \beta_4 Z) X + (\beta_0 + \beta_2 Z)$$

$$= (-.22 + .27 Z) X + (3.00 + .01 Z)$$

1c. Simple Regression Equations for High (One Standard Deviation Above the Mean) and Low (One Standard Deviation Below the Mean) levels of Z, where $s_z = .91$

(i) At Z_H : $Y = .03 X + 3.01$

(ii) At Z_L : $Y = -.46 X + 2.99$

1d. Endpoints of Simple Regression Slopes, where $s_x = .60$

(i) At $X_H Z_H$: 3.02

(ii) At $X_H Z_L$: 2.71

(iii) At $X_L Z_H$: 2.99

(iv) At $X_L Z_L$: 3.26

FIGURE 3
Two-Way Interaction Effect of Job Dissatisfaction and Continuance Commitment on COCBs

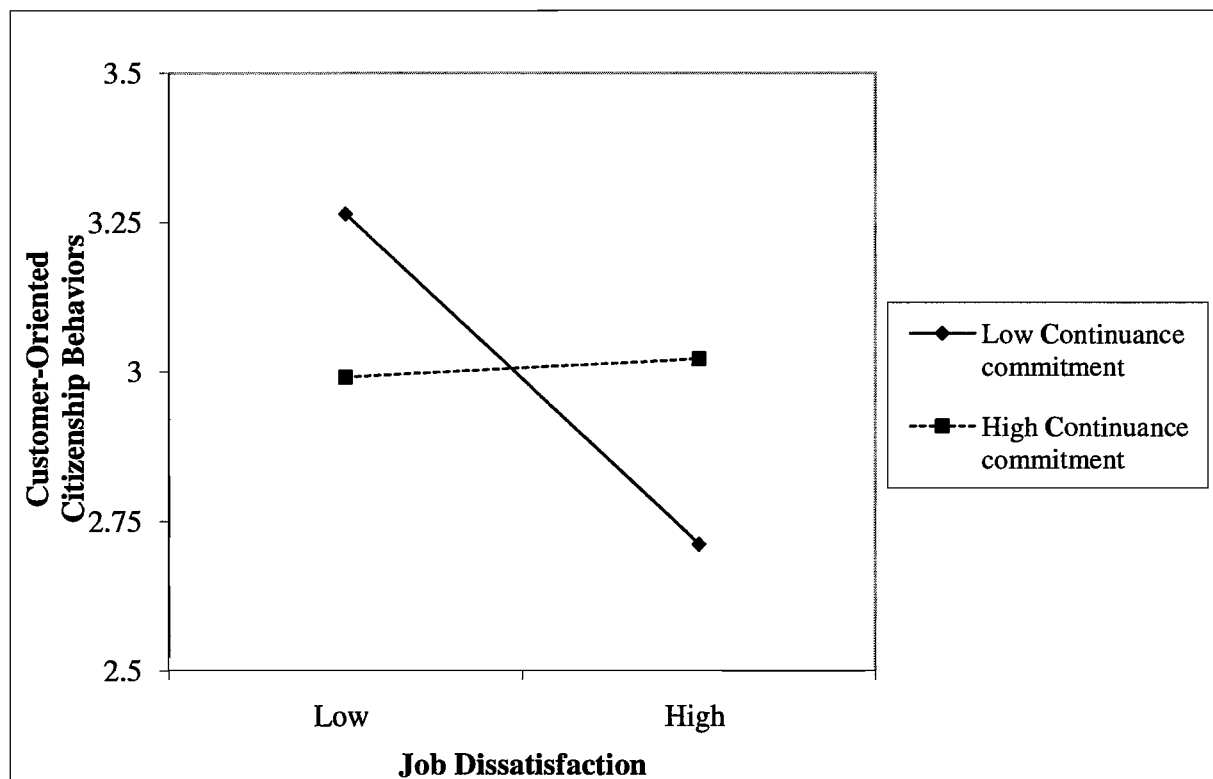


Figure 3 illustrates that when continuance commitment is high, the negative relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs is more positive than when continuance commitment is low. To that effect, Hypothesis 2 is further supported in that Figure 3 demonstrates that for higher levels of continuance commitment the focal relationship becomes weaker.

Taking into account: (1) the significant interaction term between job dissatisfaction and continuance commitment found during the hypotheses testing section (Table 13, Model 2), (2) the positive results from the simple slope analysis, and (3) the nature of the interaction plot (Figure 3), strong support is provided for Hypothesis 2.

7.5.3. Three-Way Interaction: Simple Slope Analysis

The procedure used to conduct a simple slope analysis for a two-way interaction generalizes to the context of three-way interactions (Aiken and West 1991). As such, the three step process used previously was applied once again to determine whether the simple slopes of the three-way interaction posited by Hypothesis 4 differ significantly from zero.

Explicitly, identical to how variables were calculated in SPSS for the two-way interaction, additional variables were calculated to account for the inclusion of the second moderator, supervisory support. These variables include: high and low levels of supervisory support (W_H and W_L), two interaction terms between job dissatisfaction and supervisory support at high and low levels (XW_H and XW_L), four interaction terms between the two moderators at high and low levels (Z_HW_H , Z_HW_L , Z_LW_H , and Z_LW_L), and four three-way interaction terms (XZ_HW_H , XZ_HW_L , XZ_LW_H , and XZ_LW_L).

In turn, these new variables, along with the variables calculated for the significant two-way interaction, were entered into the following four regression equations to conduct a simple slope analysis:

Continuance commitment high, supervisory support high

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z_H + \beta_3 W_H + \beta_4 XZ_H + \beta_5 XW_H + \beta_6 Z_H W_H + \beta_7 XZ_H W_H \quad (1)$$

Continuance commitment high, supervisory support low

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z_H + \beta_3 W_L + \beta_4 XZ_H + \beta_5 XW_L + \beta_6 Z_H W_L + \beta_7 XZ_H W_L \quad (2)$$

Continuance commitment low, supervisory support high

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z_L + \beta_3 W_H + \beta_4 XZ_L + \beta_5 XW_H + \beta_6 Z_L W_H + \beta_7 XZ_L W_H \quad (3)$$

Continuance commitment low, supervisory support low

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z_L + \beta_3 W_L + \beta_4 XZ_L + \beta_5 XW_L + \beta_6 Z_L W_L + \beta_7 XZ_L W_L \quad (4)$$

As previously noted, a simple slope test determines whether the slope of a simple regression equation at a given combination of moderating variables differs significantly from zero. The regression coefficient for the predictor variable, β_1 , is the value of interest for this test as it is the regression coefficient of COCBs on job dissatisfaction (i.e., the simple slope).

The results of the simple slope test, in support of Hypothesis 4, indicate that the relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs is significantly positive when continuance commitment and supervisory support are both high ($\beta_1 = .38$, $t = 2.00$, $p < .05$) (Equation 1). In every other case, the simple slope is either not significantly different from zero, Equation 2 ($\beta_1 = -.02$, $t = -.13$, ns), or significantly negative, Equation 3 ($\beta_1 = -.66$, $t = -4.09$, $p < .001$) and Equation 4 ($\beta_1 = -.38$, $t = -2.70$, $p < .01$), in accordance with the withdrawal model.

7.5.4. Three-Way Interaction: Plotting the Interaction

Figure 4 is organized such that the relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs is presented at varying levels of continuance commitment and supervisory support. As an

extension of the two-way interaction framework, this plot was created using Aiken and West's (1991) procedure for graphing three-way interactions.

For example, the slope for the situation of high continuance commitment and high supervisory support was calculated using the simple regression equation, $Y = .37X + 3.19$ (Table 15, 2c). From here, the standard deviation of job dissatisfaction, $s_x = .60$, was substituted into this simple slope equation for X at its high (.60) and low (-.60) levels to reach these endpoints:

$$\begin{array}{ll} X_L = -.60, & Y = .37(-.60) + 3.19 = 2.96 \\ X_H = .60, & Y = .37(.60) + 3.19 = 3.41 \end{array}$$

Then, these endpoints were marked on the graph and the slope was drawn accordingly by connecting the points. A similar process was taken for the remaining slopes (see Table 15 for a guide).

Figure 4, consistent with Hypothesis 4, demonstrates that the most positive relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs occurs under the condition of high continuance commitment and high supervisory support. This finding, coupled with the significant interaction term of the three-way interaction in Model 5 of Table 13 and the positive results of the simple slope analysis, provides strong support for Hypothesis 4. However, to further confirm that the relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs is the most positive when both moderators are at their high levels, a slope difference test was applied (Dawson and Richter 2006).

7.5.5. Three-Way Interaction: Slope Difference Test

Though useful findings can be taken from Aiken and West's (1991) simple slope test (i.e., to detect whether slopes differ significantly from zero), a major limitation of such is that conclusions cannot be drawn regarding relations among slopes (Dawson and Richter 2006). In response to this limitation, Dawson and Richter (2006) developed a slope difference test that

TABLE 15
Formulas for Plotting Three-Way Interactions

2a. Moderated Hierarchical Regression Equation (Three-Way Interaction)

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + \beta_3 W + \beta_4 XZ + \beta_5 XW + \beta_6 ZW + \beta_7 XZW$$

$$= 3.15 - .17 X + .04 Z + .04 W + .38 XZ + .03 XW + .05 ZW + .21 XZW$$

2b. Simple Regression Equation

$$Y = (\beta_1 + \beta_4 Z + \beta_5 W + \beta_7 ZW) X + (\beta_0 + \beta_2 Z + \beta_3 W + \beta_6 ZW)$$

$$= (-.17 + .38 Z + .03 W + .21 ZW) X + (3.15 + .04 Z + .04 W + .05 ZW)$$

2c. Simple Regression Equations for High (One Standard Deviation Above the Means) and Low (One Standard Deviation Below the Means) levels of Z and W, where $s_z = .91$ and $s_w = .88$

(i) At Z_H and W_H : $Y = .37 X + 3.19$

(ii) At Z_H and W_L : $Y = -.02 X + 3.18$

(iii) At Z_L and W_H : $Y = -.66 X + 3.03$

(iv) At Z_L and W_L : $Y = -.38 X + 3.19$

2d. Endpoints of Simple Regression Slopes, where $s_x = .60$

(i) At $X_L Z_H W_H$: 2.96

(v) At $X_L Z_L W_H$: 3.43

(ii) At $X_H Z_H W_H$: 3.41

(vi) At $X_H Z_L W_H$: 2.63

(iii) At $X_L Z_H W_L$: 3.19

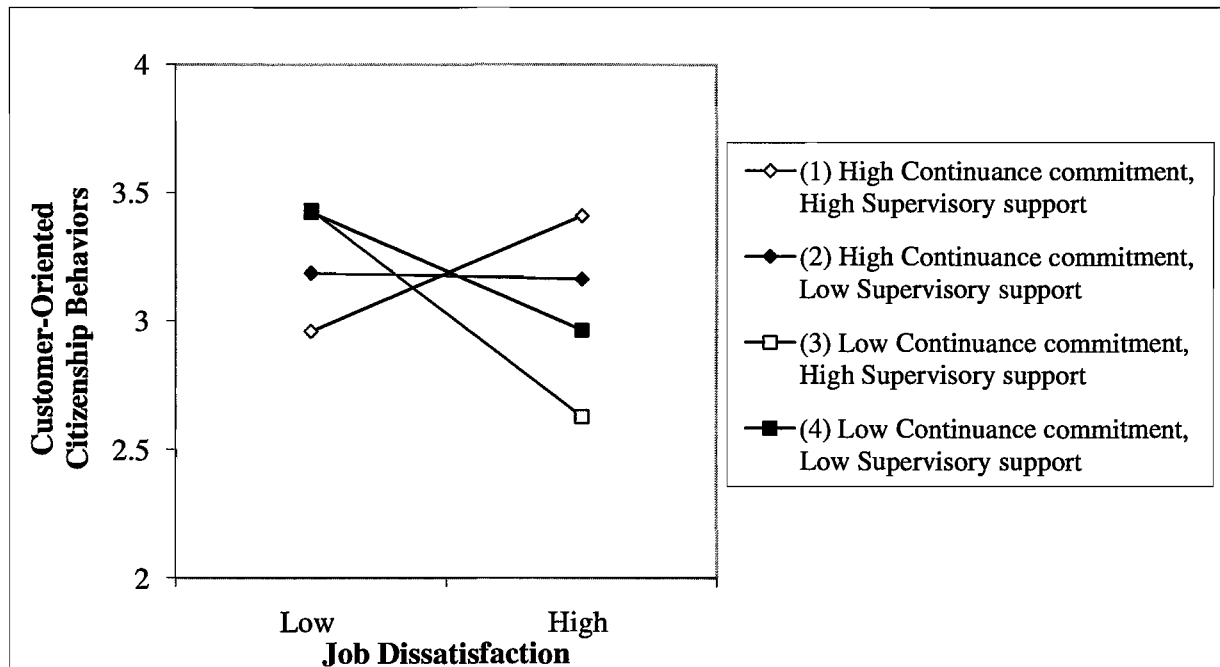
(vii) At $X_L Z_L W_L$: 3.42

(iv) At $X_H Z_H W_L$: 3.17

(viii) At $X_H Z_L W_L$: 2.97

FIGURE 4

Three-Way Interaction Effects of Job Dissatisfaction, Continuance Commitment, and Supervisory Support on COCBs



allows researchers to determine whether there is a significant difference between any pair of slopes in a model. For the context of this thesis, three differences are of interest (the differences between Equation 1 and all other slopes: 1 and 2, 1 and 3, 1 and 4), because Hypothesis 4 posits that when both moderators are at their high levels the resulting slope will be greater than all other combinations of moderators.

To conduct a slope difference test for the three pairs of slopes that are of interest, three different test statistics were needed (Dawson and Richter 2006). Employing the same notation that was used during the simple slope test for the three-way interaction, Table 16 identifies each test statistic. In addition, variances (s_{ii}) and covariances (s_{ij}) of the regression estimates (β_i) were needed for this test. To obtain these values, the variance-covariance matrix can be created by SPSS as an option when conducting regression analysis.

TABLE 16
Slope Difference Test

Slopes	Test Statistic
1 and 2	$t = \frac{\beta_5 + \beta_7 Z_H}{\sqrt{s_{55} + Z_H^2 s_{77} + 2 Z_H s_{57}}}, \quad t = \frac{.03 + .21(.91)}{\sqrt{.008 + (.91)(.91)(.006) + 2(.91)(0)}}$ $= 1.95, p < .05$
1 and 3	$t = \frac{\beta_4 + \beta_7 W_H}{\sqrt{s_{44} + W_H^2 s_{77} + 2 W_H s_{47}}}, \quad t = \frac{.38 + .21(.88)}{\sqrt{.008 + (.88)(.88)(.006) + 2(.88)(.003)}}$ $= 4.26, p < .001$
1 and 4	$t = \frac{\beta_4(Z_H - Z_L) + \beta_5(W_H - W_L) + \beta_7(Z_H W_H - Z_L W_L)}{\sqrt{\begin{aligned} &(Z_H - Z_L)^2 s_{44} + (W_H - W_L)^2 s_{55} \\ &+ (Z_H W_H - Z_L W_L)^2 s_{77} \\ &+ 2 \left[\begin{aligned} &(Z_H - Z_L)(W_H - W_L) s_{45} \\ &+ (Z_H - Z_L)(Z_H W_H - Z_L W_L) s_{47} \\ &+ (W_H - W_L)(Z_H W_H - Z_L W_L) s_{57} \end{aligned} \right] \end{aligned}}}, \quad t = \frac{.38(.91 - (-.91)) + .03(.88 - (-.88)) + 0}{\sqrt{(.91 - (-.91))^2 .008 + (.88 - (-.88))^2 .008}}$ $= 3.32, p < .001$

The results of the slope difference test indicate that Equation 1 is significantly greater than Equation 2 ($t = 1.95, p < .05$), Equation 3 ($t = 4.26, p < .001$), and Equation 4 ($t = 3.32, p < .001$). Hence, Hypothesis 4 is further supported by a slope difference test, indicating that Equation 1, as hypothesized, results in the most positive slope between job dissatisfaction and COCBs. Therefore, based on the three tests conducted, overwhelming support is given to Hypothesis 4.

8. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this thesis was to identify boundary conditions of the withdrawal model in the frontline context. In line with previous studies (e.g., Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Chen et al. 1998; MacKenzie et al. 1998; Tepper et al. 2001), I found psychological withdrawal (i.e., job dissatisfaction) to be an indicator of passive behavioral withdrawal (i.e., COCBs). However, as a departure from previous studies, my research identified boundary conditions of this withdrawal process by including moderators (i.e., continuance commitment and supervisory support) into the model that were expected, a priori, to contribute to social exchange between an employee and an organization (e.g., Blau 1964). To that effect, in adopting a SET perspective, I filled a gap in the literature and, in doing so, advanced our understanding of the withdrawal model to include boundary conditions of such.

8.1. Summary of Findings

As expected, job dissatisfaction was found to precede frontline employees' withdrawal of COCBs (Hypothesis 1). This finding is consistent with the Bettencourt and Brown (2003) study, which demonstrated this relationship across two financial services contexts. It is then apparent that employees who are dissatisfied with their job are likely to define their relations with their organization in economic terms; in effect, exchanging their services for a salary on a quid pro quo basis. This type of exchange is not conducive of extra effort on the job, such as COCBs, which in turn leads to the negative relationship that was observed.

Support was provided for the moderating role of continuance commitment in the job dissatisfaction – COCBs relationship (Hypothesis 2), such that the negative relationship became more positive for higher levels of continuance commitment. This indicates that an organization will likely receive higher levels of COCBs from an employee who is dissatisfied, yet committed

to the organization out of necessity. Conversely, when an employee is both dissatisfied and able to find other alternatives for employment, it will be difficult for an organization to motivate that employee to perform COCBs. This result was not unexpected and, accordingly, fell in line with what was hypothesized. However, the second moderator, supervisory support, is still needed. The relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs when continuance commitment is high, despite being more positive than that when continuance commitment is low, is nonsignificant. In order for frontline employees who are dissatisfied to voluntarily perform COCBs during service delivery, a significantly positive relationship between the independent and dependant variable is necessary. Therefore, supervisory support was included in the model because it is posited that supervisory support will further contribute to social exchange.

However, contrary to expectations, Hypothesis 3 was not supported in that supervisory support was not found to positively moderate the job dissatisfaction - COCBs relationship. This result runs opposite to what would be expected by reciprocity norms (e.g., Gouldner 1960). Perhaps an explanation for this finding is that, in the absence of certain conditions (i.e., high continuance commitment), employees reciprocate supervisory support by means of behaviors that directly benefit the supervisor (e.g., performing a personal favor for a supervisor) rather than behaviors that indirectly benefit the supervisor (e.g., COCBs) (Bolino 1999). In turn, the lack of support for Hypothesis 3 might be attributed to employees responding to supervisory support with behaviors that benefit the supervisor, but not the customer (e.g., helping a supervisor with his or her managerial duties). Therefore, in order to motivate employees to perform COCBs when supervisory support is provided, it is apparent that other conditions are necessary.

As hypothesized, job dissatisfaction results in the most positive relationship with COCBs when an employee is both committed to an organization out of necessity and receives

supervisory support (Hypothesis 4). This finding indicates that both continuance commitment and supervisory support are necessary for frontline employees to deposit COCBs into the organizational system. Under every other condition (e.g., high continuance commitment, low supervisory support), the withdrawal process is initiated and frontline employees react to job dissatisfaction with forms of passive behavioral withdrawal (i.e., reduced COCBs). For instance, an employee who is dissatisfied and has alternative options for employment is likely to withdraw COCBs, even in the presence of supervisory support.

8.2. Theoretical Implications

My thesis has made significant contributions to the literature in the areas of social exchange theory (SET), the service-profit chain (SPC), and employee withdrawal. In this section, the contributions I made to these literatures in response to the research questions posited at the beginning of this thesis will be discussed in sequence.

The first research question of this thesis proposed frontline employees' continuance commitment may have an impact on COCBs. Given that positive support was found for this research question (Hypothesis 2), this thesis contributes to the SET literature. Previously, little was known about the consequences of continuance commitment to sales or services organizations. This knowledge gap was present because extant research in sales and services often focused on affective rather than continuance commitment when determining antecedents to social exchange (see Chandrashekar et al. 2000 and Gruen et al. 2000 for rare exceptions).

In addition, when continuance commitment was used, its impact was predominantly hypothesized to contribute to economic exchange rather than social exchange (Chandrashekar et al. 2000). In that regard, results from this thesis run opposite to results of previous research in sales or services, but parallel to principles of exit-voice theory (Hirschman 1970) and to

applications of continuance commitment in the innovation literature (Zhou 2001). The latter research identifies the positive role continuance commitment can play, using the premise that continuance commitment ensures employees who are dissatisfied will remain members of the organization (Hirschman 1970). Therefore, the results of this thesis bring new light to the concept of continuance commitment in the sales and services literature, a perspective that can be used to understand how social exchange can be created.

In regards to the second research question, support for the inclusion of supervisory support as a moderator contributes to the SPC and employee withdrawal literatures similarly. The SPC literature indirectly conveys that ineffective internal marketing leads to negative external outcomes (e.g., Heskett et al. 1994). Alternatively, the employee withdrawal literature conveys a similar message and posits that problems inherent within internal marketing (e.g., role stressors) spark a series of links that lead to reduced employee behavior and voluntary turnover, which are detrimental to organizational performance (e.g., Dess and Shaw 2001).

The findings of this thesis (Hypothesis 4) advance both literatures by placing boundary conditions on each respective framework simultaneously. Supervisors who are reliable, helpful, and willing to listen to problems (House 1981) were found to influence COCBs from employees who are dissatisfied, yet committed out of necessity. In effect, under this condition, dissatisfaction leads to a positive outcome (i.e., provision of COCBs), which runs contrary to the negative outcome that both the SPC and withdrawal model would predict (i.e., reduced productivity).

Previous researchers overlooked the possibility that dissatisfied employees who are committed to an organization out of necessity could be influenced to provide customer service in a manner that goes above and beyond role expectations. This thesis, then, builds upon the

established literature in the areas of the SPC (e.g., Homburg et al. 2009; Kamakura et al. 2002; Loveman 1998; Maxham et al. 2008; Soteriou and Zenios 1999; Zeithaml 2000) and the withdrawal model (e.g., Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Chen et al. 1998; MacKenzie et al. 1998; Tepper et al. 2001) and identifies continuance commitment and supervisory support to be moderators that interact with each other to influence frontline employees to perform COCBs voluntarily. Further, this contribution advances the SPC literature by departing from the one-dimensional approach research on the topic has assumed and the withdrawal literature by identifying limitations that may inhibit the withdrawal process.

8.3. Managerial Implications

This thesis also poses practical lessons for top managers and supervisors of service organizations. For top managers, it is evident from the results that hiring and retaining good quality supervisors who provide support will not impact the provision of COCBs from employees who are dissatisfied if the industry the service organization operates within provides ample opportunity for employees to work elsewhere. Similarly, if frontline employees of an organization are highly demanded due to their education or skill level, supervisory support is likely to go for nothing. In such conditions, dissatisfied employees are not receptive to supervisory support, making investments to bring good talent into the organization a sunk cost.

However, several conditions, internal and external to the organization, can provide an opportunity for organizations to reap the benefits of highly qualified supervisors from frontline employees who are dissatisfied. For instance, internal to the organization, if frontline employees are either low-skilled or highly committed to an organization due to organization-specific investments, such as product-related training, it is likely that supervisory support will result in higher levels of COCBs. External to the organization, if the economy is in a downturn and

employment is sparse, organizations can also expect increases in COCBs from investments in high-qualified supervisors.

Evidently, supervisory support is not important on its own, but when the whole condition is intact (i.e., job dissatisfaction, continuance commitment, and supervisory support are all high), supervisory support is very important. This lesson is crucial for supervisors to learn, because in order for COCBs to be performed by employees who are dissatisfied both conditions must hold (at least in the financial services and travel agency industries). Hence, if supervisors understand this relationship they can allocate their limited time wisely (Konovsky and Pugh 1994).

It is then advised that supervisors continuously conduct a mental checklist to determine whether or not supportive efforts should be provided to employees who are dissatisfied. Such a mental checklist should take into consideration at least two factors. First, supervisors should consider the economic conditions of the industry within which they operate in order to understand if employees are likely to have alternative options of employment. Second, the specific characteristics of employees who are dissatisfied (e.g., low-skilled versus high-skilled) should be considered to determine the likelihood that other companies will demand their services. Support should only be provided to an employee who is dissatisfied if the mental checklist a supervisor conducts deems that the focal employee is high in continuance commitment across these two questions.

It can also be speculated, based on principles of the SPC, that treating supervisors well is of utmost importance (e.g., Heskett et al. 1994). In order for organizations to expect supervisors to be sympathetic to and supportive of frontline employees who are dissatisfied, they too must provide the same support to supervisors. To that end, perceived organizational support is equally

important and top managers should be supportive of customer service initiatives (e.g., Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro 1990; Wayne, Shore, and Liden 1997).

8.4. Limitations and Future Research Directions

Limitations of this thesis largely relate to the research design utilized to collect data. Since cross-sectional data were employed, causality between the dependent and independent variable cannot be confirmed. This limitation could have been avoided had an experiment or a longitudinal research design been adopted. Under these circumstances, the variables could have been separated, thereby allowing the direction of the relationship between job dissatisfaction and COCBs to be observed. Hence, conclusions based on causality could have been reached.

In addition, it would have been ideal to survey customers of the organizations to measure the dependent variable, COCBs. Although a rigorous test for common method variance was implemented, all concerns of common method variance cannot be alleviated when a single-method research design is utilized. The marker-variable test proposed by Lindell and Whitney (2001) was applied conservatively, but limitations of this procedure still remain.

For the purposes of this thesis, the most pertinent limitation of conducting a marker-variable technique is that it does not remove sources of common method variance such as social desirability bias and implicit theories (Podsakoff et al. 2003). Frontline employees may have artificially inflated their responses to statements regarding COCBs to portray themselves in a socially desirable manner (Ganster, Hennessey & Luthans, 1983). Therefore, the most significant problem with employing a marker-variable test is that, rather than eliminating the bias entirely, it partials out an estimate for common method variance to see if common method variance is an alternative explanation for the observed relationship (Podsakoff et al. 2003). It is

only when a second rater is used to respond to behavioral measures, like COCBs, that concerns of common method variance can be completely relaxed (cf. Merlo et al. 2006).

As a result, the most credible source to survey when measuring COCBs is the customer, because it is the customer who is the ultimate judge of whether or not such behaviors are performed, not the frontline employee (cf. Bell et al. 2004). It is then suggested that future research investigate boundary conditions of the withdrawal process in an atmosphere free of common method variance by adopting a multi-method research design.

The findings of this thesis would also benefit if future research applied boundary conditions to the withdrawal model in different service contexts. This research would hold two purposes. First, the investigation of boundary conditions of the withdrawal model in different service settings, such as the hospitality, esthetics, and clothing retail industries, would improve the generalizability of results related to COCBs. Although including two service industries in my sample begins to address the issue of generalizability, the relatively small sample size employed limits the contributions this study can make. Second, further investigation will allow researchers to test different moderators that are expected to foster a favorable climate for COCBs. Additional moderators could include variables such as coworker support, autonomy, and organizational identification since they are likely to affect frontline employees' work environment.

A limitation of this study beyond the data employed relates to the control variables used. When studying job (dis)satisfaction scholars have identified the importance of controlling for dispositional factors, such as core evaluations of the self (Judge et al. 1998). Judge and his colleagues (1998) found support for the notion that employees who perceive themselves in a positive tone are likely to be satisfied with their job. Unfortunately, dispositional effects were

not measured in the survey, which does not allow the potential impact employees' self concept may have on job dissatisfaction to be controlled for. It is left for future researchers to consider dispositional effects that may affect one's job dissatisfaction when studying other boundary conditions of the withdrawal model.

In addition, the unavoidable trade-off between the performance of in-role and extra-role behaviors may deter frontline employees who are dissatisfied from performing COCBs (Bergeron 2007). Frontline employees in the sample are appraised on the number of customers they serve per shift and the accuracy of their transactions. Given these in-role performance measures, it is possible that an increase in COCBs may come at the cost of reduced in-role behaviors (i.e., increased transaction errors). When frontline employees expend extra effort and time to go above and beyond role expectations, resource allocation theory holds that less time can be spent on role expected duties. Future research would benefit from studying both in-role and extra-role behaviors when considering boundary conditions of the withdrawal model in order to understand the costs of extra-role behaviors to organizations.

Another area for future research that has not yet been considered in the literature is to investigate whether different facets of job dissatisfaction result in different forms of passive behavioral withdrawal. The form of job dissatisfaction considered in this thesis was an overall measure of job dissatisfaction (O'Reilly and Caldwell 1981). An interesting extension of this study would be to measure Churchill, Ford, and Walker's (1974) eight facets of job (dis)satisfaction (i.e., overall, co-workers, supervision, company policy and support, pay, promotion and advancement, and customers).

Subsequently, the effect different facets of job dissatisfaction may have on passive withdrawal behaviors, such as COCBs and OCBs, can be observed. An interesting study may

look at the moderating role of certain facets of job satisfaction (e.g., satisfaction with customers, promotion and advancement, or supervision) in the negative relationship between dissatisfaction with pay and COCBs. This study has tremendous relevance to the actual retail setting, considering frontline employees often earn low wages in a highly stressful environment (e.g., Singh 2002). For instance, it may be posited that higher levels of satisfaction with customers will make the negative relationship between dissatisfaction with pay and COCBs weaker, whereas lower levels will make it stronger.

8.5. Conclusion

Altogether, the supported hypotheses indicate that top managers have a controllable means (i.e., supervisory support) to solve a problem that is otherwise uncontrollable (i.e., dissatisfied employees who have nowhere else to go). An employee group that would otherwise reduce extra effort (e.g., Meyer et al. 1989) can be influenced to deposit such behaviors into the organizational system if support is provided by supervisors. This finding, grounded in SET, advances the SPC and withdrawal model literatures and opens the door for future researchers to identify other factors that lead frontline employees who are dissatisfied to contribute to a customer-linking capability for an organization.

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